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A COMPREHENSIVE GRAMMAR

James Neil Sneddon

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Indonesian: A Comprehensive Grammar

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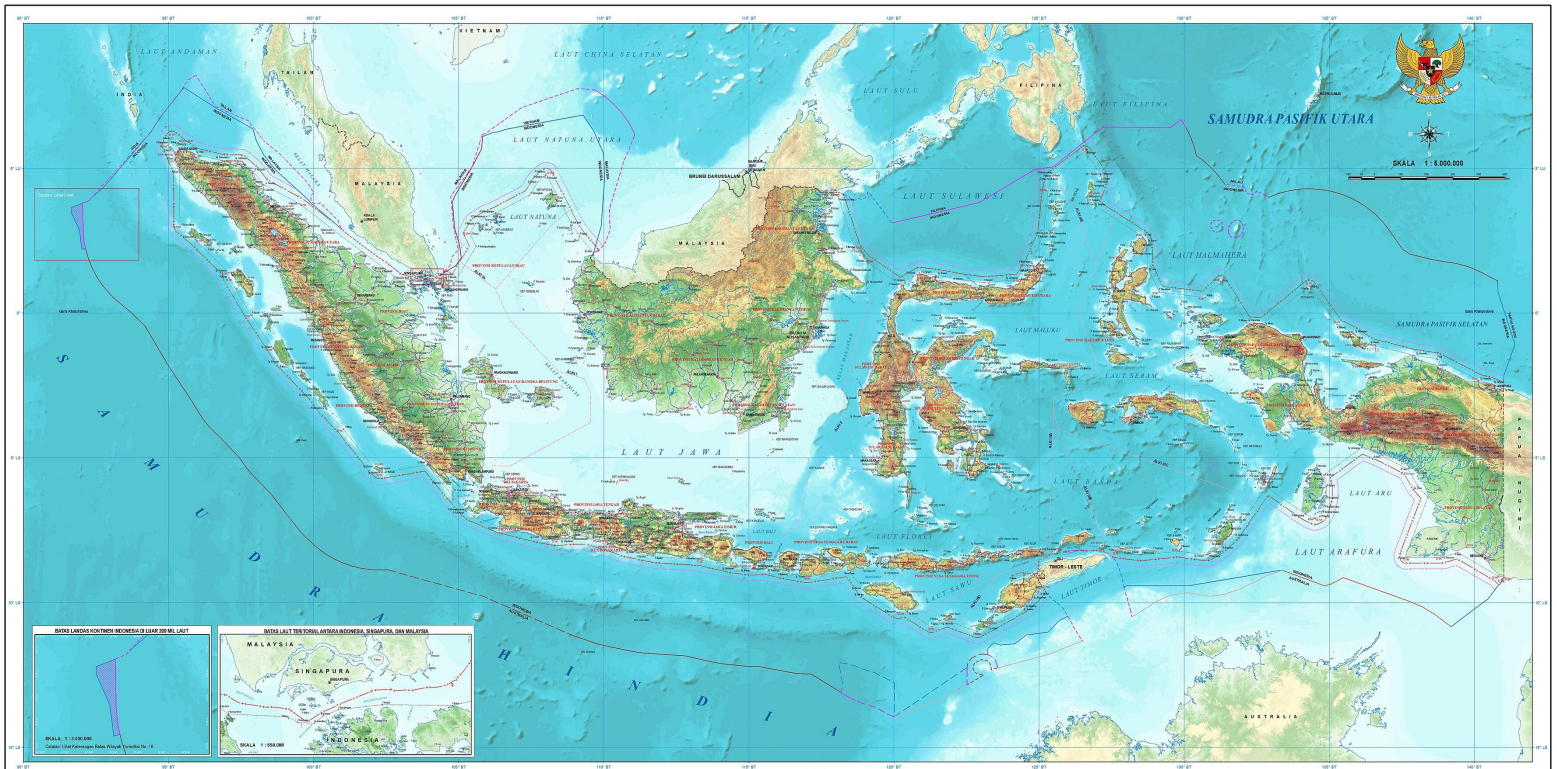
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Indonesian: A Comprehensive Grammar

James Neil Sneddon

London and New York

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GLOSSARY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS

The following terms are defined as used in this grammar of Indonesian. Some terms may be used in other ways in grammars of either Indonesian or English. Terms mentioned in this work to refer only to English grammar are not included in the glossary.

abilitative verb A verb with prefix **ter-** which indicates that the actor has the ability to perform the action.

accidental verb A verb with prefix **ter-** which refers to uncontrolled action. Depending on the particular verb and the context it may refer to action which is unintended, unexpected, agentless, involuntary or sudden.

action noun A noun which refers to an action. Such nouns frequently have affixation **peN-...-an** and can be followed by an attributive noun.

active clause See **active voice**.

active voice The form of transitive clause in which the subject refers to the one who performs the action (the actor) and in which the verb is marked by prefix **meN-**.

actor The participant who carries out the action. The actor is expressed by the subject in an active clause, such as **Ali** in **Ali menolong saya** 'Ali helps me'. It occurs as agent in a passive clause, which is optionally marked by **oleh** 'by': **Saya ditolong (oleh) Ali** 'I am helped by Ali'.

adjective A word which refers to a characteristic of a person or thing, such as **besar** 'big', **hijau** 'green'.

adjective clause A clause which has an adjective or adjective phrase as its predicate centre.

adjective complement A complement which is an adjective. Thus, **menjadi** 'become' has as a complement the adjective **marah** 'angry' in **Dia menjadi marah** 'He became angry'.

adjective of measure An adjective which refers to weight, distance, size, and so on, such as **berat** 'heavy', **tinggi** 'tall'.

adjective phrase A phrase which has an adjective as its head word.

adjunct A word or phrase which is added to a clause to give information about such matters as time, place and frequency. Adjuncts which refer to manner are called adverbs. See also **sentence adjunct**.

adverb An adjunct which gives information about the manner in which an action is performed. Also called adverb of manner.

affix A sound or group of sounds added to a word base to produce a derived word. Depending on where they occur in relation to the base, affixes are called prefixes, suffixes or circumfixes.

agent The phrase in a passive clause which indicates the actor. It sometimes follows the preposition **oleh** 'by'.

apposition The placing of one noun or noun phrase after another to give more information about it, as in **Ola, suaminya** 'Ola, her husband'.

attributive noun A noun which follows an action noun to indicate either the actor or patient of the action. It can be marked by **oleh** if indicating the actor, as in **pembunuhan oleh pemilik toko** 'the killing of (by) the shop keeper', or **terhadap** if indicating the patient, as in **pembunuhan terhadap pemilik toko** 'the killing of the shop keeper (by someone)'.

attributive verb A verb which follows a noun to give information about it, as in **kendaraan bermotor** 'motor vehicle'. Attributive verbs differ from relative clauses in that they are not preceded by **yang**.

auxiliary verb See **modal**.

base The part of a word which carries the essential meaning and to which affixes are attached, such as **jalan** in **berjalan** 'walk' and **perjalanan** 'journey'. A base cannot be broken down into smaller units. Words are listed under their base in a dictionary.

basic clause An independent clause which is described without reference to any other clause type.

beneficiary The person for whose benefit an action is performed. It is usually preceded by **untuk** 'for'. With some verbs having suffix **-kan** it occurs as object.

bound pronoun A pronoun which does not occur as a free word but must be attached to another word, such as **-ku** 'my' in **rumahku** 'my house'.

cardinal number a number which precedes a noun in counting, such as **satu** 'one', **dua** 'two', **tiga** 'three'.

circumfix An affix which has two parts, one occurring before the base and the other occurring after the base, such as **per-...-an** in **perjalanan** 'journey'.

classifier A word which precedes a noun to place it in a particular class, such as **ekor** with names of animals, as in **dua ekor ular** 'two snakes'.

clause A construction which contains a predicate. Most clauses also contain a subject.

collective number A number with prefix **ke-** which precedes a noun to indicate all the members of the group, such as **ketiga** in **ketiga orang itu** 'all three of those people'.

common noun A noun which is not the specific name of a person or thing but which refers to a person or thing as a member of a set, such as **kucing** 'cat'.

comparative adjective phrase An adjective phrase in which **lebih** 'more' or **kurang** 'less' precedes the adjective, as in **lebih besar** 'bigger'.

complement A component of a clause which resembles an object but which cannot become the subject of a passive clause. Complements can occur with intransitive verbs, as in **Ibu mulai berbicara** 'Mother began to speak', with transitive verbs, as in **Dia menyuruh saya pergi** 'He ordered me to go' and with adjectives, as in **Ratna pandai berenang** 'Ratna is able to swim'.

complement verb The verb in a complement, contrasted with the main verb, such as **berbicara** 'speak' in **Ibu mulai berbicara** 'Mother began to speak'.

complex sentence A sentence which consists of more than a single clause.

complex word A word which consists of more than a single base standing alone. The word **perjalanan** 'journey' is complex because it contains circumfix **per-...-an** as well as base **jalan**. Reduplicated words, such as **buku-buku** 'books', are also complex.

compound A complex word formed from the combination of two simple words, such as **tandatangan** 'signature', which is a compound of **tanda** 'sign' and **tangan** 'hand'.

conjunction A word which links two clauses. It can be a coordinating conjunction or a subordinating conjunction.

coordinating conjunction A word which links two independent clauses, such as **dan** 'and', **tetapi** 'but'.

coordination The linking of words or structures of the same grammatical type which are of equal importance. They are usually linked by a coordinator.

coordinator A word such as **dan** 'and' which links two words or structures of equal importance. Also called coordinating conjunction when linking two clauses.

copula A word which occurs optionally between the subject and predicate in non-verbal clauses. The copulas are **adalah** and **ialah**.

correlative structures Two clauses, phrases or words which are dependent on each other, such that neither can occur alone. Usually each of the units is introduced by a conjunction or adverb, such as the two clauses in **Dia begitu gembira, sehingga dia menangis** 'He was so happy that he cried'.

count noun A noun which refers to something which can be counted, such as **buku** 'book'. See also **non-count noun.**

declarative mood See **statement.**

defining appositional phrase A noun phrase which identifies or defines another noun phrase with which it is in apposition, such as **suaminya** 'her husband' in **Ola, suaminya** 'Ola, her husband' and **suaminya Ola** 'her husband Ola'.

defining relative clause A relative clause whose subject is omitted because it corresponds to the head noun of the embedding phrase. It is preceded by **yang**, as in **Orang yang duduk di situ** 'The person who is sitting there'.

definite number A number which is or includes a specific unit, such as **satu** 'one', **sepuluh** 'ten', occurring either as a cardinal number or in some other combination, such as in ordinal numbers and fractions. See also **indefinite number.**

demonstrative The words **ini** 'this', **itu** 'that', **tersebut** 'already mentioned', and **tadi** 'recently mentioned', which follow nouns.

demonstrative pronoun Demonstratives **ini** 'this' and **itu** 'that' occurring alone rather than after a noun, as in **Ini bagus** 'This is good'.

dependent clause A clause which cannot occur alone as a sentence but is always part of a larger structure, either combining with another clause (such as a subordinate clause) or occurring within a phrase (such as a relative clause).

derivational affix An affix which, when attached to a base, changes the word to another class, or derives another class. Thus, when **-an** is suffixed to the verb base **pakai** 'wear' it derives a noun, **pakaian** 'clothes'. See also **inflectional affix.**

derived clause A clause which is best described as resulting from changes made to a basic clause. It can be either independent, such as a topic-comment clause, or dependent, such as a relative clause.

diminutive A word indicating smallness, familiarity or affection. The word **si** is a diminutive.

direct quote Words which report exactly what someone said.

direct quote clause A clause which directly quotes what someone says, such as **Dia berkata, "Terima kasih"** 'He said, "Thank you"'.

direct speech See **direct quote.**

disjunct See **sentence adjunct.**

ditransitive clause A clause in which the object identifies the recipient or beneficiary of the action and which thus requires a second object to identify the patient.

ditransitive verb A verb which can have a primary object to indicate the recipient or beneficiary and a secondary object to indicate the patient, such as **memberi** 'give' in **memberi dia uang** 'give him money' and **memilihkan** 'choose' in **memilihkan dia hadiah** 'choose him a present'.

ellipsis The omission of a word because it is clear from context.

ellipted Omitted because it is clear from the context what is meant. See also **ellipsis**.

embedding phrase A noun phrase within which a relative clause occurs. The relative clause is said to be embedded within the noun phrase.

equative adjective phrase An adjective phrase which says that one thing is similar to another in the quality indicated by the adjective, such as **sebesar** 'as big as'.

exclamation An utterance which expresses the speaker's feelings or attitude, usually in an emphatic way.

exclamatory mood See **exclamation**.

exclamatory sentence A sentence such as **Alangkah bagusnya!** 'How beautiful!' which expresses the speaker's feelings or attitude.

exclusive first person plural The pronoun **kami** 'we', which refers to the speaker and someone else but which excludes the person being spoken to.

first person See **person**.

focusing adjunct An adjunct which identifies the most important thing involved in what is being said. There are several types, including limiters, such as **hanya** 'only', and additives, such as **juga** 'also'.

foregrounding A way of highlighting or giving extra attention to a word or phrase, usually by placing it earlier in a sentence than it normally occurs.

foregrounding particle A particle which highlights or calls attention to the part of the sentence to which it is attached. The particles are **pun** and (attached to the preceding word in writing) **-lah** and **-kah**.

full reduplication The complete repetition of an entire word, whether simple, such as **buku-buku** 'books', or complex, such as **perubahan-perubahan** 'changes'.

goal See **patient**.

group number A number which refers to a multiple of ten, hundred, thousand, etc.

head See **head word**.

head word The word around which a phrase is built. A noun phrase always has a noun as its head word. The head word of the noun phrase **mobil besar itu** 'that big car' is **mobil** 'car'. An adjective phrase has an adjective as its head, and so on.

highlighting See **foregrounding**.

honorific A form used to show respect. The word **sang** is an honorific.

identifying clause A derived clause in which the predicate is placed first for highlighting and whose subject is a nominalised relative clause, such as **Orang itulah yang mencuri dompet saya** 'It was that person who stole my wallet'.

imitative reduplication Reduplication in which the two parts of the word are similar but not identical, such as **sayur-mayur** 'vegetables'.

imperative An utterance addressed to someone with the intention that something is done and said to be in imperative mood. Imperatives range from strong commands to requests, appeals and suggestions.

inalienable possession Possession in which the thing possessed forms part of the possessor, such as **mata** 'eye' in **mata Pak Ali** 'Mr Ali's eye'. If something is not inalienably possessed it is separate from the possessor, such as **istri** 'wife' in **istri Pak Ali** 'Mr Ali's wife'.

inclusive first person plural The pronoun **kita** 'we', referring to the speaker and the person being spoken to.

indefinite number A number which is not specific, such as **banyak** 'many', **beberapa** 'several'.

indefinite pronoun A pronoun which indicates that a person or thing is being spoken about without a particular person or thing being identified, such as **seseorang** 'someone' and **siapa saja** 'anyone'.

independent clause A clause which can occur alone as a sentence.

indirect question A question which is placed within a statement. Thus the question **Kapan dia akan pindah?** 'When will he move?' becomes an indirect question in **Saya tidak tahu kapan dia akan pindah** 'I don't know when he will move'.

infix An affix which occurs immediately after the first consonant of a base. Infixation is not productive in modern Indonesian, although a few fossilised forms remain, such as **-em-** in **gemetar** 'tremble' (cf. **getar** 'vibrate').

inflectional affix An affix which does not change the class of the word. The important inflectional affixes are the voice affixes **meN-** and **di-**. Most affixes in Indonesian are derivational. See also **derivational affix**.

interjection A word uttered suddenly to express an emotion such as surprise or anger.

interrogative See **question word**.

interrogative mood See **question**.

intransitive clause A verbal clause which does not have an object and which contains an intransitive verb. See also **intransitive verb**.

intransitive verb A verb which occurs in an intransitive clause. It refers to an action which involves only one participant, the actor, such as **tidur** 'sleep', **berjalan** 'walk'.

linker See **sentence linker**.

locative A word which refers to place or location.

locative noun A noun which indicates location in relation to the following noun, such as **atas** 'top, above' in **di atas meja** 'on top of the table'.

locative preposition A preposition indicating position or direction. The three locative prepositions are **di** 'at', **ke** 'to' and **dari** 'from'.

locative pronoun A pronoun which indicates position with relation to the speaker. The locative pronouns are **sini** 'here (near speaker)', **situ** 'there (not far off)', and **sana** 'there (far off)'.

locative relative clause A relative clause indicating location and preceded by **tempat** or **di mana** 'where', rather than by **yang**, such as **(pabrik) tempat/di mana mereka bekerja** '(the factory) where they work'.

main verb The verb in an independent clause which occurs with a subordinate clause or complement. It is called the main verb to distinguish it from the verb in the complement or subordinate clause.

measurement noun A noun which refers to size, distance, volume, speed, weight or temperature. Such a noun is always preceded by a number, as in **dua kilo** 'two kilos'. A number plus measurement noun frequently precedes a noun to indicate an amount: **dua kilo beras** 'two kilos of rice'.

modal A word in the predicate which refers to concepts like possibility, ability and necessity, such as **dapat** 'can' and **harus** 'must'.

modifying adverb An adverb which occurs with an adjective to show the amount or intensity of the quality indicated by the adjective, such as **sangat** 'very', **terlalu** 'too'.

modifying noun A noun which follows another noun to give more specific information about it. Thus **buku** 'book' modifies **toko** 'shop' in **toko buku** 'book shop'.

modifying verb A verb which follows a noun to give more specific information about it. It usually indicates what the thing is used for. Thus **tidur** 'sleep' modifies **kamar** 'room' in **kamar tidur** 'bedroom'.

mood This refers to the basic reason for the utterance of a sentence. The four moods recognised here are statements, questions, orders (imperatives), and exclamations.

negation Turning a construction into a negative by adding to it one of the negative words. See **negative**.

negative A word, sometimes also called a negative word, which negates a construction. The major negatives are **tidak** 'not', **bukan** 'not', **jangan** 'don't'. The term is also used to refer to a construction which is negated, that is, which contains a negative. Thus a clause containing **tidak** is a negative clause.

nominalisation Turning a word or construction into a noun.

nominalised adjective of measure An adjective of measure which is used as a noun, such as **berat** 'heavy' in **berat saya** 'my weight'. See also **adjective of measure**.

nominalised clause A clause acting as a noun.

nominalised relative clause A relative clause which takes the place of a noun when the noun it would usually follow is omitted. Thus the relative clause **yang biru** in the noun phrase **mobil**

yang biru itu 'that blue car' is nominalised when **mobil** 'car' is omitted, as in **Yang biru itu mobil saya** 'That blue one is my car'.

non-count noun A noun which refers to something which cannot be counted, such as **air** 'water', **gula** 'sugar'. It cannot be preceded by a number or classifier or be reduplicated to indicate plurality.

noun A word which refers to a person, thing or abstract concept.

noun clause A clause whose predicate centre is a noun, such as **Dia guru** 'He is a teacher'. The negative in a noun clause is **bukan**.

noun complement A complement which is a noun. Thus, **menjadi** 'become' has as a complement the noun **presiden** in **Dia menjadi presiden** 'He became president'.

noun phrase A sequence of words which functions in the same way as a noun (for instance, as the subject or object of a clause) and which has a noun as its head word.

nuclear component A word or phrase which is obligatory to a particular clause type. A predicate is nuclear to all clause types. Most clauses also require a subject and some must have an object or a complement. Components of a clause which are not nuclear are called adjuncts.

number pronoun One of a limited number of definite or indefinite numbers which can stand alone in place of a noun, such as **kedua-duanya** 'both of them' and **semuanya** 'all of them'.

object The noun or noun phrase which occurs immediately after an active transitive verb. It usually indicates the patient of the action but with some verbs it identifies the beneficiary or recipient. The object noun phrase becomes the subject when an active clause is transformed into a passive construction.

object complement A complement which follows the object in a transitive clause. The object usually stands as subject of the object complement. In the following construction the object complement is **pergi** 'go'; **anaknya** 'his child' is simultaneously object of the main verb and subject of the complement: **Dia menyuruh anaknya pergi** 'He ordered his child to go'.

object topic-comment clause A topic-comment clause whose topic corresponds to the object in the basic clause from which it is derived. In the following object topic-comment clause the topic is **surat itu** 'that letter': **Surat itu, saya belum menerimanya** '(As for) that letter, I haven't received it yet'.

object topic-comment relative clause A topic-comment relative clause whose topic derives from the object of a basic clause, its place in the original clause being marked by **-nya**, as in **senjata yang tidak setiap musuh bisa menghadapinya** 'weapons which not every enemy can face'.

ordinal number A number which indicates where something comes in a sequence and has the prefix **ke-**, such as **kedua** 'second', **kelima** 'fifth'.

parataxis The coordination of two units without use of a coordinator, such as the two clauses in **rumahku hancur, sapiku mati** 'my house was destroyed, my cattle were dead'.

partial reduplication This occurs only with bases which begin with a consonant and involves placing before the base a syllable consisting of the first consonant of the base followed by **e**, such as **leluhur** 'ancestor', based on **luhur** 'noble'. This type of reduplication is no longer productive in the language.

participant One of the semantic relationships involved in an event and expressed by a noun phrase standing as subject, object, and so on. Important participants include the actor, which is marked as subject in an active clause and as agent in a passive clause, and the patient, which is marked as object in an active clause.

partitive A word which precedes a noun to indicate a particular amount. Partitives, such as **bungkus** 'packet' and **piring** 'plate', are usually preceded by a number, as in **dua bungkus rokok** 'two packets of cigarettes' and **sepiring nasi** 'a plate of rice'.

passive type one A passive clause in which the verb has prefix **di-** and the agent is indicated by a phrase following the verb, sometimes marked by the preposition **oleh** 'by', such as **Surat itu ditulis oleh Ali** 'That letter was written by Ali'. It can only occur if the agent is third person, except with **ter-** and **ke-...-an** verbs, in which a passive construction is always passive type one.

passive type two A passive clause in which the verb has no prefix and the agent precedes the verb, such as **Surat itu saya tulis** 'That letter was written by me'. The agent phrase must be a pronoun.

passive voice The form of transitive clause in which the subject refers to the patient. The actor, if mentioned, is expressed by an agent phrase. The verb is marked by prefix **di-** (passive type one) or has no prefix (passive type two).

patient The participant which is moved or affected by the action (also called the goal). It occurs as object in most active clauses, such as **Ali** in **Mereka menolong Ali** 'They help Ali'. It occurs as subject in the passive of such constructions: **Ali ditolong oleh mereka** 'Ali is helped by them'. With ditransitive verbs the patient can occur as the secondary object. Thus, the patient **uang** 'money' occurs as secondary object in **Saya memberi dia uang** 'I give him money'.

person One of three classes of people involved in what is said; first person refers to the person speaking, such as **saya** 'I', second person refers to the person being spoken to, such as **kamu** 'you', and third person refers to the person or thing being spoken about, such as **mereka** 'they' and **orang itu** 'that person'.

personal pronoun A pronoun which refers to a person who has already been mentioned or is otherwise clear from context, such as **saya** 'I', **mereka** 'they'.

phrase A group of words which is grammatically equivalent to a single word, being able to occur in the same places as that word.

The phrase is built around a head word, which is a member of the class to which the phrase is equivalent. For instance, a noun phrase is built around a noun. Prepositional phrases and predicate phrases have a different structure.

phrase head See **head word.**

possessive noun A noun which follows another noun to indicate the possessor. See also **possessor.**

possessive pronoun A pronoun which follows a noun to indicate the possessor. See also **possessor.**

possessor A term which covers a number of semantic relationships which stand between a noun or pronoun and a preceding noun. Depending on the context is may mark the owner or possessor (**rumah saya** 'my house'), or some other connection, such as originator or creator (**lukisan Monet** 'Monet's painting'), or a family or social relationship (**ayah Tomo** 'Tomo's father').

possessor topic-comment clause A topic-comment clause whose topic corresponds to the possessor in the basic clause from which it derives. In the following possessor topic-comment clause the topic is **sopir itu**, the possessor of **nama** 'name': **Sopir itu, namanya Ali** '(As for) that driver, his name is Ali'.

possessor topic-comment relative clause A topic-comment relative clause whose topic corresponds to the possessor in the basic clause from which it derives and which means 'whose', as in **sopir yang namanya Ali** 'the driver whose name is Ali'.

predicate The part of a clause which says something about the subject. The predicate centre contains a word (verb, noun, and so on) which determines much of the structure of the rest of the clause.

predicate centre The obligatory component of a predicate. The predicate centre determines the clause type; it is a verb in verbal clauses and one of a number of phrase types in non-verbal clauses, such as a noun phrase in a noun clause.

predicate phrase A phrase built around an obligatory predicate centre, including negative, temporal markers and modals.

prefix An affix which occurs before a base, such as **ber-** in the word **berjalan** 'walk'.

preposition A word which links a following noun phrase to the rest of a clause, telling what the relationship of that noun phrase is to the clause. For instance, the preposition **di** 'in' tells that the following noun **kota** is the location, in **Mereka tinggal di kota** 'They live in the city'.

prepositional clause A clause whose predicate is a prepositional phrase, such as **untuk ibu** 'for mother', in **Kalung ini untuk ibu** 'This necklace is for mother'.

prepositional phrase A construction consisting of a preposition followed by a noun phrase, such as **untuk orang itu** 'for those people' and **dengan teman saya** 'with my friend'.

prepositional relative clause A relative clause which begins with a preposition. The noun following the preposition is identical to the head of the embedding phrase and so is replaced by **-nya**. The

following example derives from the prepositional phrase **di belakang rumah** 'behind the house': **rumah yang di belakangnya ada pohon mangga** 'the house behind which there is a mango tree'.

primary object The object which immediately follows the verb and which becomes the subject when the clause is transformed into a passive. See also **secondary object**.

primary verb A verb which has primary affixation, that is, affixation which is not described as replacing some other affixation to achieve a certain effect. Primary affixation refers to no affix, **ber-** or **meN-** on intransitive verbs, and **meN-** or **di-**, alone or in combination with **-kan**, **-i** or **per-** on transitive verbs. See also **secondary verb**.

productive a process (especially use of an affix) which is not restricted to a limited set of words but can be applied to new words.

pronoun A word which stands for a noun when it is clear who or what is being spoken about, such as **kita** 'we', **semuanya** 'all of them'.

pronoun substitute A noun which is used for first or second person and thus acts like a pronoun. Pronoun substitutes are personal names or kinship terms, such as **bapak** 'father', translated 'you' if used to refer to the person being addressed and translated 'I' if referring to the person speaking.

proper noun The specific name of a person, thing, or place, such as **Ali, Hotel Indonesia, Jakarta**.

pseudo-intransitive verb A transitive verb which can occur without its object being expressed, thus resembling an intransitive verb, such as **membaca** 'read', in **Saya sedang membaca** 'I'm reading'.

quantifier A word or phrase which occurs before a noun to indicate quantity. It can be a number occurring alone, such as **dua** 'two', or in combination with a partitive, such as **setengah gelas (air)** 'half a glass of (water)'.

quantity clause A clause in which the predicate states the number or measurement of the subject, such as **Anaknya lima** 'She has five children' (literally: 'Her children are five').

question A construction used when asking for information. Questions are said to be in interrogative mood.

question word A word occurring in a specific question which corresponds to one of the 'wh-' words in English, such as **siapa** 'who', **kapan** 'when'. Also called an interrogative.

quote noun A noun which consists of a verb base which follows a direct quote and is itself obligatorily followed by a possessor, such as **kata** in **"Selamat pagi", katanya** '"Good morning", he said'. See also **quote noun phrase**.

quote noun phrase A phrase consisting of a quote noun and a possessor. The phrase follows a direct quote and corresponds to a subject and predicate preceding a direct quote. Thus the quote noun phrase **katanya** 'he said' in **"Selamat pagi", katanya** '"Good

morning", he said', corresponds to **dia berkata** 'he said' in **Dia berkata, "Selamat pagi"** 'He said, "Good morning"'.

recipient The person at whom an action is directed. It usually follows prepositions **kepada** and **pada** 'to'. With some verbs, especially **-i** verbs, it can occur as object, such as **dia** 'he' in **Saya memberi dia uang** 'I give him money'.

reciprocal verb A verb which indicates that two people do the same thing to each other or that two people or things stand in the same relation to each other. Corresponding verbs in English usually have 'each other' as object, as in **Mereka pukul-memukul** 'They hit each other'.

reduplication The doubling of a word (see **full reduplication**) or the addition of a syllable before the word (see **partial reduplication**).

referent phrase The component of an adjective phrase which indicates with reference to whom or what the characteristic indicated by the adjective applies. It is introduced by a preposition such as **untuk** 'for', as in **terlalu besar untuk saya** 'too big for me'.

reflexive The word **sendiri** 'self', which occurs with nouns and pronouns to emphasise or make clear who or what is being referred to. See also **reflexive phrase**.

reflexive phrase A phrase which usually occurs as the object of a verb to indicates that the object refers to the same person as the subject. The full phrase is **diri** + pronoun + **sendiri**, as in **Dia mencandai dirinya sendiri** 'He jokes at himself'. See also **reflexive pronoun**.

reflexive pronoun The word **diri** 'self', which can occur alone, as in **menjaga diri** 'look after oneself', or in a reflexive phrase.

relative clause A clause preceded by **yang** and occurring in a noun phrase to give information about the noun. The term usually refers to a defining relative clause, as in **orang yang duduk di situ** 'the person who is sitting there'.

second person See **person**.

secondary object A noun which indicates the patient and which follows the primary object of a ditransitive verb, such as **uang** 'money' in **Dia memberi mereka uang** 'He gave them money'.

secondary verb A verb which has secondary affixation, which replaces primary affixation under certain circumstances. Thus **terbakar** 'burned' is a secondary verb, whose affix **ter-** replaces primary affix **di-** to indicate accidental action. See also **primary verb**.

semantic role See **participant**.

sentence A construction which can stand alone as a complete utterance. A sentence can be a statement, question, command or exclamation.

sentence adjunct An adjunct which is not part of a clause but is used with a clause or series of clauses to convey the speaker's comment on what is being said, such as **rupanya** 'apparently', **sayang** 'unfortunately'. Also called sentence adverbial or disjunct.

sentence adverbial See **sentence adjunct**.

sentence linker A word similar to a conjunction but which instead of linking one clause to another within a sentence links two sentences, at the same time indicating the kind of connection there is between the two sentences, such as **oleh karena itu** 'therefore', **meskipun demikian** 'despite that, nevertheless'.

sentence tag A word attached to the end of a question for such purposes as seeking confirmation, such as **bukan** in **Saudara mahasiswa, bukan?** 'You are a student, aren't you?'

simple intransitive verb An intransitive verb which has no affixation, such as **tidur** 'sleep', **duduk** 'sit'.

simple nominal clause An active verbal clause used as a noun, meaning 'the general activity denoted by the verb'. It can have an object but no subject and usually occurs as the subject of a clause, such as **mencari pekerjaan** 'looking for work' in **Mencari pekerjaan di kota tidak begitu mudah** 'Finding work in the city is not very easy'.

simple sentence A sentence which consists of a single independent clause.

simple transitive verb A transitive verb which consists only of a base and one of the inflectional affixes **meN-** or **di-**, such as **menulis** 'write', **ditulis** 'written'.

simple word A word which consists solely of a base, which cannot be broken down into smaller units, such as **orang** 'person', **duduk** 'sit'.

specific question A question which requires specific information as an answer and which cannot be answered by 'yes' or 'no'. It contains a question word, such as **siapa** 'who', **di mana** 'where'. See also **yes-no question**.

statement An utterance used when we give information, express an opinion, and so on. Statements are sometimes said to be in the declarative mood.

stative verb A verb with prefix **ter-** which refers to a state rather than an action and which thus has no actor, such as **terletak** 'located'.

subject The component of a clause which is the thing being discussed, the 'theme' of the utterance. It is frequently something which has been mentioned previously, about which something new (the predicate) is said, as **Ali** in **Ali sudah pulang** 'Ali has gone home'.

subordinate clause A clause which cannot stand alone as a sentence but which occurs with another clause (the main clause) in a complex sentence. It can occur either before or after the main clause to add information to it. The subordinate clause is preceded by a subordinating conjunction, such as **sesudah** 'after', in **Mereka berangkat sesudah makan** 'They left after eating'.

subordinate verb See **complement verb**.

subordinating conjunction A conjunction which occurs before a subordinate clause, such as **ketika** 'when', **karena** 'because'.

subordination Making one clause subordinate to another. See **subordinate clause**.

suffix An affix which occurs after the base, such as **-an** in **tulisan** 'writing'.

superlative adjective phrase A phrase in which an adjective is preceded by **paling** or **ter-** 'most', as in **paling besar** 'biggest', **tertinggi** 'highest'.

superordinate verb See **main verb**.

tag See **sentence tag**.

temporal marker A word within the predicate which indicates that the action has occurred, is occurring, or is yet to occur in relation to the moment of utterance or in relation to some other event referred to, such as **masih** 'still', **akan** 'will'.

third person See **person**.

topic The component of a topic-comment clause which occurs first for foregrounding. It is identified with a component of the basic clause from which the topic-comment clause derives and its place in that clause is marked by **-nya**. Thus, **sopir itu** 'that driver' is the topic in **Sopir itu namanya Ali** '(As for) that driver, his name is Ali'.

topic-comment clause A clause which contains a topic, the rest of the clause, which includes a subject and predicate, forming a comment on the topic. See also **topic**.

topic-comment relative clause A relative clause derived from a topic-comment clause. See also **possessor topic-comment relative clause** and **object topic-comment relative clause**.

transitive clause A verbal clause which has an object and which contains a transitive verb. See also **transitive verb**.

transitive verb A verb which occurs in a transitive clause. It refers to an action which has two participants, an actor and a patient, such as **membawa** 'carry', **melempar** 'throw'.

verb A word which refers to an action, such as **lari** 'run', **membaca** 'read', or a state, such as **tidur** 'sleep', **terletak** 'located'. It occurs as the predicate of a verbal clause. See also **intransitive verb** and **transitive verb**.

verbal clause A clause whose predicate centre is a verb, such as **Mereka sedang makan** 'They are eating'.

verbal complement A complement which is a verb or verbal clause, such as **merokok** 'smoke' in **Dia berhenti merokok** 'He stopped smoking'. See also **complement verb**.

vocative A word which addresses the person being spoken to, such as **pak** in **Selamat pagi, pak** 'Good morning, sir'.

voice The form of a clause which determines whether the subject will identify the actor (active voice) or the patient (passive voice). See also **active voice** and **passive voice**.

yes-no question A question which can be answered by 'yes' or 'no'. It does not contain a question word. See also **specific question**.

INTRODUCTION

This is a description of the Indonesian language for English-speaking teachers and learners and for any others interested in the language and its structures.

The work recognises that the majority of such people will not be familiar with linguistic concepts and terminology. Consequently it avoids linguistic jargon and theoretical discussion. It also differs from linguistic studies in that it does not always describe Indonesian grammar 'in its own right'. The special needs of English learners of the language are taken into account, with more detailed discussion of structures which differ significantly from corresponding structures in English. English and Indonesian structures are specifically contrasted if the Indonesian structure is one which causes particular difficulty for English-speaking learners.

The variety of Indonesian described here can be called standard formal Indonesian. This can loosely be identified as the language of government, administration and the mass media in the Republic of Indonesia. It is the type of Indonesian in which education takes place and which is used by educated people in formal situations, whether written or spoken. There is very little mention here of forms characteristic only of colloquial and non-standard varieties of Indonesian. Such varieties of the language vary considerably

from region to region, social group to social group and according to the degree of informality of the situation. Attempting to deal with what are in fact different grammatical systems together in a single description would result in a confusing hotchpotch and would divert attention from the basic aim of this work, which is to provide a description of the formal standard language. In some cases colloquial forms are mentioned if they are widely used. However, this is rarely done and phenomena such as the dropping of certain verbal affixes in everyday speech are not discussed.

Even within formal standard Indonesian there is a considerable amount of variation compared with that found in standard English. Where there are alternative structures only one might be acceptable to some educated people. Mention of such differences is sometimes made. If published sources give conflicting opinions as to the grammaticality of a structure this is sometimes mentioned in a footnote. Much variation, however, must go uncommented upon, including the tendency of certain structures to be favoured by people of particular regional language backgrounds.

Only rarely is comment made on the frequency of occurrence of forms or on their level of formality (although forms occurring mainly in colloquial styles are specifically identified as such). Differences in usage between people of different social and ethnic groups makes this a complex topic in the study of the Indonesian language and comments are necessarily very general.

Further, Indonesian is a language in a state of rapid change. New words suddenly appear, some to acquire permanent acceptance, others to quickly disappear. The mass media, frequently translating from English, are constantly introducing English words and structures. With the enormous influence of the press on the language, structures regarded as un-Indonesian or ungrammatical quite recently have become acceptable (at least to some people) today. The Javanese language too continues to influence Indonesian, both in lexicon and syntax. The changes that have been occurring in Indonesian present difficulties for any attempt to describe the

language. A grammar is basically a synchronic statement and little attempt is made here to capture diachronic change, although some important current trends are noted. Structures which were common in earlier language may not be mentioned here if they were not recorded in modern usage during the preparation of this description.

In order to provide a practical reference for most user needs a grammar must aim for a certain degree of completeness. The present grammar describes in some detail all the major structures of Indonesian from words to complex sentences. However, it stops far short of attempting to describe the various functions of individual words, this being the task of dictionaries and studies of word usage (such as Sarumpaet 1980). While contrasts between function words are frequently pointed out, this is necessarily brief; Kaswanti Purwo's attempt to investigate the differences in function between various deictic words (Kaswanti Purwo 1984) reveals what an enormous task this would be if extended to the entire lexicon.

In the production of this work I have drawn on many sources for information on the language, exploiting the study and insights of numerous people. All published works from which information on Indonesian grammar have been taken are given in the list of references. While major structures are dealt with in some detail, as mentioned above, the description is hampered by the fact that many areas of Indonesian grammar have not been subjected to detailed analysis. Gaps in our knowledge are found in all areas of the grammar, with a great deal of analysis still being required on the affixes **ter-** and **ke-...-an**, on reciprocal constructions, and on complementation, to name but a very few areas. This grammar then is only as complete as research on any area allows.

An attempt is made to provide a reasonable number of varied examples in natural contexts for all structures discussed. Examples of constructions are drawn from numerous sources, including newspapers, magazines and novels, television and radio, and, to a lesser extent, from conversation. Others are directly elicited from speakers of Indonesian. Where a

number of words function in the same way a list of examples is usually provided. English glosses to words in such lists are meant as a guide only. A gloss does not attempt to capture the complexities of a word's meaning and refers only to its meaning in the particular construction being discussed. Where dictionaries disagree as the the meaning of a word, a not uncommon occurrence, the tendency here is to follow *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia* (1991). Echols and Shadily's dictionary (in the 1989 revision edited by John Wolff and James Collins) has also been influential.

The work is in four chapters, each based on one of the four basic levels of Indonesian grammar discussed: Words, Phrases, Clauses, Sentences. No chapter is strictly confined to describing elements at the level referred to in its title. In particular, in dealing with the function of certain affixes, a satisfactory description must take into account the syntactic structures within which words taking those affixes occur. This is especially true in the coverage of verbal affixes.

Because many structures must be referred to in several sections cross-referencing is extensive. This attempts to help the reader find desired information as quickly as possible, something often very difficult in reference grammars. This is also aided by a table of contents at the beginning of the work and a more detailed index at the end.

Sections are numbered consecutively from the beginning to the end of each chapter. As far as possible, each section has been designed to be informative if read alone, thus providing the reader with useful information on a particular small aspect of the language.

A grammar is essentially a set of generalisations about a language, each structure described being a general description of a large number of utterances of a particular form. In order for structures to be conveniently discussed labels must be applied to them. These labels are called grammatical terms. Grammatical terms used in this work are defined in the section dealing with the structure they label. A glossary of common terms is also provided. Terms used are basically the

common terms of traditional grammar, although some are used here in a somewhat different way from what is usual in grammars of English. Moreover, a few terms have been coined here specifically to meet the needs of Indonesian grammar. However, an effort is made to keep the the number of grammar terms to a minimum.

Spelling used in this work is the official *Ejaan yang disempurnakan*, introduced in 1972 (see, for instance, Kridalaksana 1978). Punctuation is usually retained as it occurred in written examples, although this results in some inconsistency, mainly in the use of commas.

In this grammar the level of phonology is not dealt with. Adequate non-technical descriptions of the sounds are given in a number of teaching texts, such as Johns (1978). More detailed discussion of phonology requires a level of technical description not informative to people without a linguistics training and for this reason is excluded. Works providing such description include Alieva et al (1991), Macdonald (1976), and *Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia* (1988, 1993).

Levels of grammar above the sentence are not dealt with either. Indonesian discourse structure still awaits adequate analysis and, further, it is felt that a description of higher levels would not be perceived by many users as having the practical value of lower-level analysis. Nevertheless, a study of Indonesian paragraph and discourse structure along the lines of the present work would be a worthy project for a future date.

Much about the Indonesian language apart from its grammar could not be included in the present study. A brief discussion of the history of the language and its position within present-day Indonesian society can be found in the Introduction to Worsley (1994).

In the production of this work a number of grammars of English were consulted, including Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) and Leech and Svartvik (1975). *Collins Cobuild*

English Grammar (1990) was especially valuable and has had an important influence on the nature of this work.

1 WORDS

1.1 Words can be simple or complex. A simple word consists solely of a base, which cannot be broken down into smaller units. A base carries the essential meaning of a word and is the part of the word listed alphabetically in a dictionary. Examples of simple words are **buku** 'book', **lebar** 'wide', **duduk** 'sit'.

In this chapter are described the processes whereby complex words are formed. A word can be complex in a number of ways. it can consist of reduplicated bases, such as **buku-buku** 'books'. Reduplication is discussed in sections 1.10 to 1.29. It can be a compound of two bases, such as **asal-usul** 'origin'. Compounds are discussed in paragraphs 1.30 to 1.35. A word can also consist of a base with one or more affixes, such as **membukukan** 'enter in a book', **diperlebar** 'widened', **kedudukan** 'situation'.

1.2 The description of affixes and their functions forms the major part of this chapter, beginning at section 1.38.

There are three types of affix in Indonesian: prefixes, suffixes and circumfixes. A prefix is attached before the base. When a prefix is discussed separately it is indicated by a hyphen after it, such as **ber-**. A suffix comes after a base, indicated by hyphen before it: **-an**. A circumfix contains two parts, one

occurring before the base and one after. When a circumfix is mentioned separately the two parts are separated by three dots, this indicating the position of the base: **ke-...-an**. When only the first part of a circumfix is referred to, the term 'prefix' is used. A fourth type of affix, the infix, is not part of the system of modern Indonesian, although its earlier occurrence is seen from a few fossilised forms, discussed in sections 1.36–7. An infix is placed after the first consonant sound of a base; when referred to separately an infix has hyphens placed before and after it: **-el-**.

SOUND CHANGES IN COMPLEX WORDS

1.3 A number of sound changes occur when affixes and bases combine. The major changes are discussed in sections 1.4 to 1.8. Other sound changes affecting affixes are minor and are dealt with in discussion of the individual affixes.

The following symbols are used in the discussion of such sound changes. A plus sign (+) indicates a sequence of affix and base. An arrow (→) indicates the form which results from their combination. Thus **ber- + renang → berenang** means that when prefix **ber-** and base **renang** are combined the result is the complex word **berenang**.

*Prefixes **ber-, per-, ter-***

1.4 Prefixes **ber-, per-, ter-** and circumfixes which have **ber-** or **per-** as their prefix component undergo the changes listed below:

The **r** of the prefix is lost under the following circumstances:
When the base begins with **r**:

ber-	+	**renang**	→	**berenang**
per-	+	**rusak**	→	**perusak**
ter	+	**rasa**	→	**terasa**

When the base begins with the sound combination **CerC**, where **C** represents any consonant:

ber-	+	**serta**			→	**beserta**
ber-	+	**terbang**	+	**-an**	→	**beterbangan**

per-	+	**kerja**	+	**-an**	→	**pekerjaan**
ter-	+	**pergok**			→	**tepergok**

Loss of **r** before a base beginning with **CerC** is not entirely regular; in a few words it does not occur or is optional. Thus:

ter-	+	**percaya**	→	**tepercaya, terpercaya**

Prefix **ter-** usually becomes **te-** with the bases **lanjur** and **lantar**. The **ter-** forms are regarded by some as substandard and are not listed in all dictionaries. In some dictionaries **te-** is regarded as part of the base rather than as a prefix:

ter-	+	**lanjur**	→	**telanjur, terlanjur**
ter-	+	**lantar**	→	**telantar, terlantar**

With base **ajar** the **r** in **ber-** and **per-** is replaced by **l**:

ber-	+	**ajar**			→	**belajar**
per-	+	**ajar**	+	**-an**	→	**pelajaran**

*Prefixes **meN-** and **peN-***

1.5 The capital **N** represents a sound which changes depending on the first sound of the base. **N** can appear as one of the nasals **m**, **n**, **ny**, **ng**, or as zero. Sometimes the nasal comes before the first sound of the base and sometimes it replaces the first sound. The rules are illustrated by **meN-** but apply equally to **peN-** and **peN-...-an**. Exceptions to the rules are given in section 1.6 and the affixation with single syllable bases in section 1.7.

N becomes ng before a vowel

If the word begins with a vowel prefix **meng-** is attached:

meN-	+	**ajar**	→	**mengajar**
meN-	+	**ekspor**	→	**mengekspor**
meN-	+	**erang**	→	**mengerang**
meN-	+	**olah**	→	**mengolah**
meN-	+	**urus**	→	**mengurus**

N becomes m with initial b, p, f

If the word begins with **b**, **p** or **f** prefix **mem-** occurs. Initial **p** is lost:

meN-	+	**beli**	→	**membeli**
meN-	+	**pakai**	→	**memakai**

meN- + fitnah → memfitnah

N becomes **n** with initial **d, t, c, j, sy, z**
If the word begins with **d, t, c, j, sy, z** prefix **men-** occurs. Initial **t** is lost:

meN-	+	**dengar**			→	**mendengar**
meN-	+	**tulis**			→	**menulis**
meN-	+	**cari**			→	**mencari**
meN-	+	**jual**			→	**menjual**
meN-	+	**syarat**	+	**-kan**	→	**mensyaratkan**
meN-	+	**ziarah**	+	**-i**	→	**menziarahi**

N becomes **ny** with initial **s**
If the word begins with **s** prefix **meny-** occurs. Initial **s** is lost:

meny- + sewa → menyewa

N becomes **ng** with initial **g, k, h, kh**
If the word begins with **g, k, h** or **kh** prefix **meng-** occurs. Initial **k** is lost:

meN-	+	**ganggu**		→	**mengganggu**
meN-	+	**kirim**		→	**mengirim**
meN-	+	**hilang**		→	**menghilang**
meN-	+	**khawatir**	+ **-kan**	→	**mengkhawatirkan**

N is lost before other initial sounds
If the word begins with **l, r, m, n, ny, ng, w,** or **y** prefix **me-** occurs:

meN-	+	**lihat**			→	**melihat**
meN-	+	**rasa**			→	**merasa**
meN-	+	**masak**			→	**memasak**
meN-	+	**nanti**			→	**menanti**
meN-	+	**nyanyi**			→	**menyanyi**
meN-	+	**nganga**			→	**menganga**
meN-	+	**wakil**	+	**-i**	→	**mewakili**
meN-	+	**yakin**	+	**-i**	→	**meyakini**

Sometimes the same sequence of sounds can result from different combinations of N and initial base sound so that the initial sound of the base cannot be predicted from the form of the derived verb. Thus, **ny** results both from **meny** + **s** (which is lost) and from **me** + **ny**:

menyewa	from	**meny-**	+	**sewa**
menyanyi	from	**me-**	+	**nyanyi**

The sequence of **ng** and a vowel can result from three combinations:

mengarang	from	**meng-**	+	**karang**
mengarang	from	**meng-**	+	**arang**
menganga	from	**me-**	+	**nganga**

N undergoes the same changes with affixes **peN-** and **peN-...-an** as it does with **meN-**, for instance:

peN-	+	**tulis**			→	**penulis**
peN-	+	**tulis**	+	**-an**	→	**penulisan**

*Exceptions to the rules for **N***

1.6 If prefix **meN-** is followed by prefix **per-** the initial **p** of **per-** is not lost:

meN-	+	**per-**	+	**lebar**	→	**memperlebar**
meN	+	**per-**	+	**oleh**	→	**memperoleh**

If the base begins with the sequence **perC**, that is, **per** followed by a consonant, the initial **p** is lost irregularly:

meN-	+	**percaya**	+	**-i**	→	**mempercayai**
meN-	+	**pergok**	+	**-i**	→	**mempergoki, memergoki**
meN-	+	**percik**	+	**-i**	→	**memerciki**

The **p** of prefix **per-** and of base-initial **perC** is lost following prefix **peN-**:

peN-	+	**per-**	+	**satu**	→	**pemersatu**
peN-	+	**per-**	+	**oleh** + **-an**	→	**pemerolehan**
peN-	+	**perkosa**			→	**pemerkosa**

With some bases initial **p, t, s,** and **k** are not lost. If **s** is not lost **N** becomes **n**. With the exception of verbs beginning with **perC**, this is almost entirely confined to words borrowed from other languages. The initial sound is most likely to be retained if the word is still felt to be foreign. Thus retention of the sound is common in words beginning with consonant clusters, which do not occur in indigenous words:

meN- + proklamasi + -kan → memproklamasikan

meN-	+	**traktir**			→	**mentraktir**
meN-	+	**swadaya**	+	**-kan**	→	**menswadayakan**
meN-	+	**klasifikasi**	+	**-kan**	→	**mengklasifikasikan**

Initial **p, t, s** and **k** are sometimes retained in borrowings even where there is no initial consonant cluster. As a borrowing becomes more accepted as an Indonesian word the tendency increases for people to use the more regular form without the initial consonant of the base. During a transition period both forms occur:

meN-	+	**protes**			→	**memprotes, memrotes**
meN-	+	**taat**	+	**-i**	→	**mentaati, menaati**
meN-	+	**sukses**	+	**-kan**	→	**mensukseskan, menyukseskan**
meN-	+	**kritik**			→	**mengkritik, mengritik**

The time at which the 'changeover' occurs and the length of the transition period differs from word to word (and to some extent from speaker to speaker). Thus, **mentaati** and **menaati** 'obey' continue to exist side-by-side, while after many years of use **menterjemahkan** 'translate' was completely replaced by **menerjemahkan** in a very short period during the mid-1980s.

In a few non-borrowed words base-initial **p** remains. The word **mempengaruhi** 'influence', from base **pengaruh**, may result from interpretation of the word as having prefix **peN-**. However, **mempunyai** 'possess', from base **punya**, must be regarded as an exception in the modern language.

With **kaji** both possibilities occur but with different meanings: **mengaji** 'recite the Quran', **pengajian** 'Quran reading', and **mengkaji** 'to research, carry out study', **pengkajian** 'study, research'.

Prefix **peng-** occurs with the bases **lihat, rajin** and **lepas**: **penglihatan** 'sight', **pengrajin** 'craftsman', **penglepasan** 'release' (as well as **pelepasan**). During the early 1990s there was an increasing tendency for **pengrajin** to be regularised as **perajin**.

Initial **sy** is lost from the base **syair**: **menyair** 'write poetry', **penyair** 'poet'.

MeN- and peN- with single syllable bases

1.7 With single syllable bases, which are all borrowings from other languages, **meN-** and **peN-** optionally become **menge-** and **penge-**. The regular form of the prefix can occur instead, in which case initial **p, t, s, k** are not lost. Some people recognise only the **menge-** variant as being standard[1]. The frequency of either form depends both on the individual base and personal preference:

meN-	+	**pel**			→	**mengepel, mempel**
meN-	+	**cek**			→	**mengecek, mencek**
meN-	+	**bom**			→	**mengebom, membom**
meN-	+	**tik**			→	**mengetik, mentik**
meN-	+	**sah**	+	**-kan**	→	**mengesahkan, mensahkan**
meN-	+	**rem**			→	**mengerem, merem**

Derivatives with **peN-** and **peN-...-an** act similarly:

peN-	+	**bom**	+	**-an**	→	**pengeboman, pemboman**
peN-	+	**sah**	+	**-an**	→	**pengesahan, pensahan**

With passive prefix **di-** (see 3.27) the base occurs in the normal way: **dibom, dipel**, and so on.

The indigenous word **tahu** 'know' is interpreted as a single syllable and only the prefixes **menge-** and **penge-** occur with it:

meN-	+	**tahu**	+	**-i**	→	**mengetahui**
peN-	+	**tahu**	+	**-an**	→	**pengetahuan**

---

1 *Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia* (1993: 120) recognises only the **menge-** forms as standard. Chaer (1988: 270) takes the same position and advises against the use of forms such as **mempel** and **mentik**. On the other hand, Badudu (1986: 89-90) regards both forms as standard. Echols and Shadily (1989) and *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia* (1991) frequently list both forms.

In the passive of this word **ke-** is retained: **diketahui**. With the borrowed word **tik** 'type' **ke-** optionally occurs in the passive: **ditik, diketik**. Because of this both **ketik** and **tik** are recognised as bases. Some people regard **menge-** as containing a prefix **ke-**, which functions to form a two-syllable base, such forms being the most common base in indigenous words. The retention of **nge** in reduplicated bases (see 1.8) strengthens this view.

Reduplicated bases with meN- and peN-

1.8 When a base prefixed with **meN-** is reduplicated **N** is retained on the reduplicated base where the initial consonant has been lost. The symbol **R** represents full base reduplication (see 1.10):

meN-	+	**bagi-R**			→	**membagi-bagi**
meN-	+	**amat-R**	+	**-i**	→	**mengamat-amati**
meN-	+	**minta-R**			→	**meminta-minta**
meN-	+	**pijit-R**			→	**memijit-mijit**
meN-	+	**tulis-R**			→	**menulis-nulis**
meN-	+	**kayuh-R**			→	**mengayuh-ngayuh**

When **meN-** is realised as **menge-** before a one-syllable base (see 1.7) the sequence **nge** occurs on the reduplicated base:

meN- + **cek-R** → **mengecek-ngecek**

WORD-FORMING PROCESSES

1.9 The word-forming processes in Indonesian are discussed in the remainder of this chapter. The individual affixes, their functions and the combinations in which they occur are discussed from section 1.44 to the end of the chapter. Some general word-forming processes are not restricted to particular classes of words; these are the various types of reduplication and compounding.

Some word-forming processes, including some forms of affixation, are productive. That is, the process is not restricted to particular words but can be applied to new words as they appear in the language or to already existing words to which it has not been applied before. Some processes, such as infixing, are not productive; the process occurs only with

particular words. Where a process is not productive this is pointed out in the relevant section.

Full reduplication

1.10 A word, whether simple or complex, can be fully reduplicated. Full reduplication involves repeating the entire word. The two parts of the word are separated by a hyphen in writing and the second is treated as the reduplicated part.

Free bases can be reduplicated: **buku-buku**, **tinggi-tinggi**, **duduk-duduk**.

A word consisting of an affix or more than one affix plus base can be reduplicated: **perubahan-perubahan** (from base **ubah**), **tulisan-tulisan** (from base **tulis**).

A base can be reduplicated and affixes can then be added to the reduplicated base: **kemerah-merahan** (from base **merah**), **berkali-kali** (from base **kali**), **sebesar-besarnya** (from base **besar**), **melihat-lihat** (from base **lihat**).

Full reduplication has many functions. Sometimes reduplication of bases cannot be discussed separately from a consideration of the affixes with which it occurs. For instance, the function of the reduplication of the bases in **kuda-kudaan** 'toy horse' and **sebesar-besarnya** 'as big as possible' is dependent on the particular combination of base and affix and cannot be described free from the overall forms in which it occurs. Such reduplication is discussed under the individual affixes. On the other hand, most full reduplication of words, whether simple or complex, and of some bases in complex words, can be described free from a consideration of the particular affixes accompanying it. Such reduplication is discussed in the following sections.

Reduplication without corresponding single bases

1.11 Sometimes reduplicated forms have no unreduplicated counterparts to which they can be related. Such forms are often treated as single bases in dictionaries, although usually written with a hyphen. Such forms include

tiba-tiba 'suddenly', **sia-sia** 'futile', **pura-pura** 'pretend', **megap-megap** 'pant', **masing-masing** 'each'. Although single bases with the same form sometimes occur these are chance similarities. Thus the word **tiba** 'arrive' has no relationship (at least in modern Indonesian) to **tiba-tiba** 'suddenly'.

Reduplication of nouns

1.12 Where a noun can occur singly or repeated the reduplication has a number of functions, as discussed in sections 1.13–4.

Some nouns consisting of repeated forms are of the type mentioned in 1.11 and are thus single bases. Many of these words are names of plants and animals, types of food, and instruments, although such formations are not confined to these categories: **cumi-cumi** 'squid', **kupu-kupu** 'butterfly', **alang-alang** 'tall grass species', **koma-koma** 'saffron', **gado-gado** 'mixed vegetable dish', **ani-ani** 'small harvest knife', **oleh-oleh** 'gift'. Sometimes a reduplicated form refers to something having two or more similar parts; a single base rarely or never occurs: **paru-paru** 'lungs', **baling-baling** 'propeller', **anting-anting** 'ear ring'.

1.13 Reduplication may produce a meaning which is different but nevertheless related to the meaning of the single base. Dictionaries inconsistently list such reduplicated forms under the single base or as separate entries. Such forms include:

gula sugar : **gula-gula** sweets
laki husband : **laki-laki** man
mata eye : **mata-mata** spy
kuda horse : **kuda-kuda** easel; trestle
langit sky : **langit-langit** ceiling

In a few cases such words can also indicate plurality (see 1.14). Thus **kuda-kuda** 'horses', **mata-mata rantai** 'links of a chain'.

1.14 The major function of noun reduplication is to indicate plurality. Both simple and complex nouns can be reduplicated to indicate plurality: **rumah-rumah** 'houses',

singkatan-singkatan 'abbreviations', **perubahan-perubahan** 'changes'.

A noun is not usually reduplicated unless it is unclear from context whether one or more than one is referred to and then only if this is important to what the speaker wishes to convey. In the first example below the number makes plurality specific, while in the second sentence plurality is clear from the general context; one does not usually buy a single shoe:

Menteri mengunjungi tiga negeri asing.
The minister visited three foreign countries.
Saya harus membeli sepatu baru.
I must buy new shoes.

Sometimes, however, a speaker does use reduplication even though plurality is clear from context:

Pulau-pulau Bali, Lombok dan Sumbawa terletak di sebelah timur pulau Jawa.
The islands of Bali, Lombok and Sumbawa are located east of Java.

Reduplication does not occur if a whole class of things is referred to. Neither noun in the following sentence can be reduplicated:

Anjing suka tulang.
Dogs like bones.

It is sometimes stated that reduplication of nouns indicates variety rather than plurality (although plurality is implied by variety). Indonesian writers disagree on this question, but clearly reduplication can be used where variety is of no importance. In the following sentences there is no focus at all on variation among the mango trees, links of the chain or water containers; what is stressed is that there is more than one:

Rumahnya dekat pohon-pohon mangga itu.
His house is near those mango trees.
Mata-mata rantai berbentuk bulat.
The links of the chain are round.
Pada pinggangnya terikat bumbung-bumbung kosong.
At his waist are tied empty bamboo water containers.

Reduplication is not normally used in reference to things which come in pairs, such as certain body parts. Where it is felt necessary to indicate plurality in such cases **belah** 'half; one of something which comes in a pair' is usually used (see 2.26).

When a noun is followed by a modifying noun (see 2.37) usually only the head noun is reduplicated:

buku-buku sejarah history books
toko-toko buku book shops

There is sometimes disagreement among Indonesians as to whether or not a noun and modifying noun should both be repeated; in some common combinations either the head noun alone is repeated or both are, speakers differing as to what is acceptable, thus: **surat-surat kabar** or **surat kabar-surat kabar** 'newspapers'.

When a noun and a following possessive noun both refer to more than one it is often possible to repeat either noun:

Sebutkanlah nama-nama universitas yang termasuk SKALU.
Sebutkanlah nama universitas-universitas yang termasuk SKALU.
Give the names of the universities in SKALU.[2]

Reduplication of pronouns

1.15 The following personal pronouns (see 2.66) can be reduplicated: **saya** 'I', **kami** 'we (exclusive)', **kita** 'we (inclusive)', **kamu** 'you', **beliau** 'he, she (respectful)', and **mereka** 'they'.

For all these except **mereka** reduplication usually has a belittling or disparaging connotation:

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2 These sentences are taken from Simatupang (1983: 112). Indonesians display a great deal of uncertainty and disagreement as to what is permissible when reduplicating constructions involving two nouns (noun with following modifying or possessive noun). Simatupang presents a detailed consideration of this topic (1983: 110-120).

Mengapa hanya saya-saya yang selalu diberi tugas yang berat ini?
Why is it always poor old me who gets these jobs?
Jangan berbuat gaduh di sini, beliau-beliau sedang rapat!
Don't be noisy, the big shots are having a meeting!

For **mereka** reduplication conveys emphasis; the pronoun is usually followed by a relative clause introduced by **yang**:
Mereka-mereka yang belum terdaftar harap lekas mendaftarkan diri.
Those who aren't enrolled yet should enrol as soon as possible.[3]

Reduplication of adjectives

1.16 Reduplication of an adjective usually occurs when the noun it describes is plural; reduplication indicates that the characteristic indicated by the adjective applies to all the objects:
Gambarmu bagus-bagus.
Your drawings are beautiful.
sekitar 230 pulau yang kecil-kecil ukurannya
about 230 small islands
hutan-rimba yang pohonnya tinggi-tinggi sekali
a forest whose trees are very tall

1.17 A reduplicated adjective can occur alone, functioning like a concessive clause introduced by **meskipun** (see 4.76):
Kecil-kecil, si Ali sudah pacaran.
Although young, Ali already has a girl friend.
Sakit-sakit, dia pergi juga ke sekolah.
Although sick, he still went to school.

1.18 Reduplicated adjectives can function as adverbs (see 2.170):
Anak itu berteriak keras-keras.
The child screamed loudly.

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3 The discussion of reduplicated pronouns, together with examples, is adapted from Kaswanti Purwo (1984: 64).

Reduplication of verbs

1.19 Unlike nouns, complex verbs do not undergo full reduplication. Instead, bases are repeated and affixes then attached to them. There are several functions.

1.20 With some verbs reduplication gives a connotation of action done in a casual or leisurely way:

duduk sit : **duduk-duduk** sit about
berjalan walk : **berjalan-jalan** walk about, go for a stroll
melihat see : **melihat-lihat** browse, have a look around
membuka open : **membuka-buka (buku)** leaf through (a book)

1.21 With many verbs reduplication indicates continued action, either an action done over a period of time or an action performed repeatedly:

Bu Yem mengurut-urut rambut anaknya.
Mrs Yem stroked her child's hair (a number of times).
Potongan kayu itu terapung-apung di atas air.
The piece of wood floated on the water.
Dia berteriak-teriak memanggil pelayan.
He shouted and shouted for the waiter.
Menteri menunda-nunda keberangkatannya.
The minister kept delaying his departure.

1.22 With some verbs reduplication gives a meaning somewhat different from that of the single form, usually conveying a sense of intensity:

menjadi become : **menjadi-jadi** get worse
meminta request : **meminta-minta** beg
membesarkan enlarge : **membesar-besarkan** exaggerate
berganti replace : **berganti-ganti** alternate, keep changing places

1.23 Accompanied by **tidak** 'not' reduplication of the verb can indicate that the action has not occurred, usually implying that this is contrary to expectation:

Sudah dua hari Pak Tanto tidak muncul-muncul.
Mr Tanto hasn't turned up for two days now.
Perembukan mereka tidak menyinggung-nyinggung masalah pemerintah persatuan nasional.

Their deliberations did not touch on the matter of a government of national unity.

1.24 A few verbs, including **datang** 'come', **bangun** 'wake up', **pulang** 'arrive home', can be reduplicated to function like correlative clauses introduced by **begitu** 'no sooner' (see 4.89):

Bangun-bangun mereka sudah bertengkar.
No sooner were they awake than they began to argue.

Reduplication of numbers

1.25 This forms adverbs meaning 'in a group of so many':

Bicaralah satu-satu.
Speak one at a time.
Mereka masuk dua-dua.
They came in two at a time.

The numbers can also be separated by **demi** or **per** (see 2.177). Numbers for 'two' to 'four' can also occur with prefix **ber-** (see 1.160).

Partial reduplication

1.26 Partial reduplicaton occurs only with bases which begin with a consonant. It involves placing before the base a syllable consisting of the first consonant of the base followed by **e**. This type of reduplication is no longer productive in the language; it occurs with a few bases, mainly nouns, and cannot be applied to others. The reduplicated word has a meaning which is the same as that of the single form or related to. Sometimes, as in the first example below, the historical relationship is not obvious:

tangga ladder : **tetangga** neighbour
jaka bachelor : **jejaka** bachelor
laki husband : **lelaki** man
luhur noble : **leluhur** ancestor
tamu guest : **tetamu** guest
tua old : **tetua** elders

Imitative reduplication

1.27 In imitative reduplication the two parts of the word are not identical, though they are similar. Nouns, adjectives and verbs can all undergo imitative reduplication. The variation between the two parts of the word can involve either consonants or vowels. Imitative reduplication is not productive; new forms cannot be created nor can the two parts of the word change places. Frequently only the first component of the word occurs as a simple word. In some cases neither part can occur alone. The reduplication usually indicates variety or emphasises the meaning of the first component. Imitative reduplication is not greatly different from some types of compounding (see 1.31) and could alternatively be placed in that category.

1.28 The difference may be only the first consonant: **sayur-mayur** 'vegetables' (**sayur** 'vegetable'), **lauk-pauk** 'side dishes' (**lauk** 'side dish'), **ramah-tamah** 'hospitable and friendly' (**ramah** 'friendly'), **cerai-berai** 'scattered, dispersed' (**cerai** 'separated', **berai** 'dispersed'), **kaya-raya** 'very wealthy' (**kaya** 'rich', **raya** 'great').

In one case two consonants are different: **pecah-belah** 'broken into pieces' (**pecah** 'broken', **belah** 'crack').

1.29 The difference may be in the vowels. There may be only one vowel difference: **desas-desus** 'rumour', **warna-warni** 'all kinds of colours' (**warna** 'colour'), **gerak-gerik** 'movements, gestures' (**gerak** 'movement').

Usually there are two vowel differences. It is most common for the first component to contain the vowels **o...a** and the second component to contain the vowels **a...i**, although these are not the only combinations. Often with this type of imitative reduplication neither part of the word can occur alone: **bolak-balik** 'to and fro' (**balik** 'return'), **pontang-panting** 'run helter skelter', **obrak-abrik** 'destroy, smash to pieces', **mundar-mandir** 'back and forth', **tindak-tanduk** 'behaviour' (**tindak** 'action'), **asal-usul** 'origin, descent' (**asal** 'origin'), **teka-teki** 'riddle'.

Compounds

1.30 A compound is a combination of two simple words which come together to form a complex word. Thus **tanda** 'sign' and **tangan** 'hand' combine in the compound **tandatangan** 'signature'. Not all compounds are written as a single word; some are usually hyphenated, such as **pemuda-pemudi** 'young people', while others are often written as two words, such as **salah paham** 'misunderstand'. There is considerable inconsistency in the usage of different people. It is usual for such forms to be written without a space or with a hyphen when they form the base for a derived word: **kesalahpahaman, kesalah-pahaman** 'misunderstanding'.

A sequence of words may not be a compound when standing alone but may become such when acting as the base for an affixed form. Thus **peti es** 'ice box' is a phrase rather than a compound, but it is a compound base in the verbal form **mempeti-eskan** 'leave for later consideration'.

1.31 Some compounds resemble imitative reduplication (see 1.27–9). In these compounds, however, there are differences of both vowel and consonant; the two parts can also have different numbers of syllables. The parts occur as separate words, usually with very similar meanings. These forms are almost entirely adjectives; they are similar in meaning to one or both parts alone but the meaning is more intensive: **gelap gulita** 'pitch dark' (**gelap** 'dark', **gulita** 'dark'), **kelam kabut** 'foggy, murky' (**kelam** 'dull, overcast', **kabut** 'fog'), **lemah lembut** 'gentle, graceful' (**lemah** 'weak', **lembut** 'soft'), **sunyi senyap** 'deathly still' (**sunyi** 'lonely, quiet', **senyap** 'quiet, deserted'), **terang benderang** 'very bright' (**terang** 'bright', **benderang** 'bright').

1.32 A compound may consist of two words occurring as noun and adjective or as noun and modifying noun which are treated as a single unit for the purpose of affixation, that is, they combine as the base of a complex word. Many of these, such as **kambing hitam** 'scapegoat', have an idiomatic meaning. As idioms they act like single words, not only combining for the purposes of affixation, but not being separable when occurring without affixation. Thus in the

above example the idiom is lost if the words are separated by **yang**; **kambing yang hitam** can only mean 'a goat which is black' (see also 2.45). As mentioned in 1.30, some combinations, such as **peti es** 'ice box', only have idiomatic meaning when forming the base of a complex word.

1.33 Some compound nouns form the base for verbs, such as the following:

kambing hitam scapegoat : **mengkambing-hitamkan** put the blame on, make a scapegoat

tandatangan signature : **menandatangani** sign

titik berat centre of gravity, most important aspect : **menitik-beratkan** stress, emphasise

A few compound nouns consist of two verb bases. These then form the base for complex verbs:

serah terima transfer (**serah** 'surrender', **terima** 'receive') : **menyerah-terimakan** handover, transfer (authority)

Some compounds function both as intransitive and transitive verbs:

ikut serta participate : **mengikutsertakan** include, let (someone) participate

putar balik turn over : **memutarbalikkan** turn (something) over

bertanggung-jawab be responsible : **mempertanggung-jawabkan** account for, justify

1.34 The following compounds function as both nouns and verbs:

makan pagi breakfast; eat breakfast

makan siang lunch; eat lunch

makan malam dinner; eat dinner

1.35 In a number of cases two nouns can be juxtaposed to form a compound where the words are separated by 'and' in English. In other cases two words of similar meaning are compounded:

anak cucu children and grandchildren

kasih sayang love and affection

pemuda pemudi youths, young men and women

putra putri sons and daughters
suami istri married couple, husband and wife
harta benda wealth, property
sanak saudara relatives
warta berita news

Infixes

1.36 Infixation is not productive and only a limited number of infixed forms occur. Because of this infixed forms are no longer felt by most people to contain an affix and they are listed separately from their bases in dictionaries. The infixes are **-em-**, **-el-**, **-er-**. The meaning of the infix is unpredictable. Infixed forms have the same meaning as the simple form or a meaning related to it:

gigi tooth : **gerigi** serration
suling flute : **seruling** flute
tapak palm, sole : **telapak** sole, palm
tunjuk point : **telunjuk** index finger
getar vibrate : **gemetar** tremble

1.37 A few forms infixed with **-em-** occur only as a reduplication of the base form of the word. Such words convey a meaning which is similar to that of the base alone or which is an intensity of the meaning of the base:

kilau shine : **kilau-kemilau** shine brightly
tali rope : **tali-temali** all sorts of rope
turun descend : **turun-temurun** hereditary

In at least one case the base does not occur alone: **gilang-gemilang** 'brilliant'.

AFFIXES

1.38 In the following sections of this chapter the prefixes, suffixes and circumfixes of the language are described. When the function of an affix can be adequately described without reference to context single words are given as examples. When it is necessary to include a discussion of context in the description of an affix examples are given in context.

1.39 There are two types of affix according to function: derivational and inflectional. When a derivational affix is attached to a base it changes the word to another class; that is, it derives another class. An inflectional affix does not change the category of the word. Most affixes in Indonesian are derivational. The important inflectional affixes are the voice affixes **meN-** and **di-**, which are attached to transitive verbs to signal whether they are active or passive.

1.40 Affixes can occur in combination. Thus the word **memperbesar** 'enlarge' contains base **besar** 'large' with prefixes **meN-** and **per-**.

A circumfix must be distinguished from a combination of prefix and suffix. Thus **berpakaian** 'clothed, wearing clothes' consists of prefix **ber-** 'have, wear' and base **pakaian** 'clothes'. This in turn consists of base **pakai** 'wear' and suffix **-an**. On the other hand, **berdatangan** 'come in random fashion' consists of circumfix **ber-...-an** 'do in random manner' and base **datang** 'come'.

1.41 Most of the affixes described in the remainder of this chapter are indigenous, while a few are borrowings from other languages. A number of other affixes now occurring in the language are not discussed here, such as **-isme**, as in **kolonialisme** 'colonialism', and **-itas**, as in **stabilitas** 'stability'. These are generally recent acquisitions from European languages, attached to bases which are also borrowed from European languages. While some are common in the speech of educated people, they are not regarded as sufficiently assimilated for inclusion here. However, commonly occurring affixes borrowed from Sanskrit and Arabic are included.

1.42 In a number of words borrowed from Sanskrit male and female forms are distinguished, the former ending in **a** and the latter in **i**. The distinction has been extended to a few native words. The form with **a** is sometimes general, applying both to males and females, while the form with **i** is always

feminine. This ending is not a suffix as the word cannot occur without it:

dewa god, deity : **dewi** goddess
pemuda youth : **pemudi** young female
pramugara air steward : **pramugari** air stewardess
putra son; prince : **putri** daughter; princess
saudara relative of same generation; you : **saudari** you (to female)

The only affixes which make a gender distinction are **-wan** and **-wati** (see 1.105).

1.43 In the following discussion affixes are grouped according to the class of word they derive. The 'parts of speech' referred to, noun, verb and so on, are described in Chapter Two. When discussing the meaning of affixes it is sometimes convenient to use the symbol [base] to indicate that the meaning of any relevant base can occur in that position. Thus, in section 1.59 the meaning of **-an** is described as **apa yang di-[base]**. With the base **makan** this becomes **apa yang dimakan**.

Derivation of nouns

1.44 A considerable number of affixes can be attached to bases to derive nouns. Nouns are further discussed in section 2.3.

Prefix peN-

1.45 This prefix is attached to verbs and some other words to derive nouns with several closely related meanings. With some bases **peN-** alternates with **pe-**, as discussed in section 1.53.

1.46 **PeN-** is attached to verbal bases to derive nouns indicating a person who carries out the action expressed by the base. Corresponding verbs are given for comparison in the following examples:

menganut follow : **penganut** follower, adherent
menonton view : **penonton** spectator
menulis write : **penulis** writer

menumpang ride in : **penumpang** passenger
menduduki occupy : **penduduk** inhabitant

1.47 **peN-** also derives nouns referring to inanimate objects, usually the instrument with which the action is performed. Such forms frequently modify another noun (see 2.37) or are themselves modified by another noun, as shown in the following examples:

membangkitkan generate : **pembangkit (listrik)** (electricity) generator
mempersatukan unify : **pemersatu** unifier
mencetak print : **(mesin) pencetak** printer
menenangkan calm : **(obat) penenang** sedative
mengendalikan control : **(menara) pengendali** control (tower)
menggaris draw a line : **penggaris** ruler
menutup shut : **penutup (botol)** (bottle) top
merangsang stimulate : **perangsang** stimulant

1.48 A **peN-** noun can sometimes mean either a person who performs the action or an instrument with which the action is performed, depending on context:

mencetak print : **pencetak** printer (person or instrument)
mendengarkan listen : **pendengar** listener; **(alat) pendengar** hearing aid
menjebak trap, snare : **penjebak** trapper; trap

1.49 A few **peN-** nouns are based not on verbs but on other parts of speech, usually adjectives. These refer to someone or something associated with the base:

besar big : **pembesar** important person
jahat bad : **penjahat** criminal
mabuk intoxicated : **pemabuk** drunk (person)
muda young : **pemuda** youth
sakit sick : **penyakit** illness
sebab cause : **penyebab** cause

A number of other forms based on adjectives, such as **pemalu** 'shy person', are often interpreted as nouns but bear more resemblance to adjectives. These are described in sections 1.119–22.

Prefix ***pe-***

1.50 This prefix derives nouns indicating a person who carries out an action. It occurs with a limited number of bases.

1.51 **Pe-** derives nouns indicating a person who carries out the action indicated by the corresponding **ber-** verb. It only occurs with bases which begin with a consonant:

bekerja work : **pekerja** worker
berdagang trade : **pedagang** trader, merchant
berjalan walk : **pejalan (kaki)** pedestrian
berziarah go on pilgrimage : **peziarah** pilgrim

1.52 **Pe-** nouns sometimes refer to sporting activities. Some of these have no corresponding **ber-** verbs:

berenang swim : **perenang** swimmer
bergulat wrestle : **pegulat** wrestler
bertinju box : **petinju** boxer
bulu tangkis badminton : **pebulu tangkis** badminton player
tenis tennis : **petenis** tennis player

1.53 In a few cases both **peN-** and **pe-** nouns occur with the same base, having the same or very similar meanings:

bersaing, menyaingi compete : **pesaing, penyaing** competitor
bersulap, menyulap conjure : **pesulap, penyulap** conjurer
cinta, mencintai love : **pecinta, pencinta** lover

1.54 **PeN-** and **pe-** may both occur but with different meaning. Sometimes **peN-** indicates one who performs the action (the actor), being related to a verb with prefix **meN-**, while **pe-** indicates one who undergoes the action (the patient – see 3.17), being related to a verb with prefix **di-**:

penatar trainer (**menatar** run upgrading course) : **petatar** trainee (**ditatar** be upgraded, trained)
penunjuk indicator (**menunjukkan** indicate) : **petunjuk** instructions, indication (**ditunjukkan** indicated)

penyuruh one who gives orders (**menyuruh** order) : **pesuruh** messenger, one who takes orders (**disuruh** ordered)

In a few cases both forms occur with different meanings which are not related to actor and patient:

penjabat (menteri) acting (minister) : **pejabat** official (**menjabat** hold office)

penyerta companion (**menyertai** accompany) : **peserta** participant (**ikut serta** participate)

1.55 With some bases N is lost from **peN-** (see 1.5). With such bases the prefix can only be determined by the corresponding verb. Thus **pelukis** 'painter' has prefix **peN-**, corresponding to **melukis** 'paint', while **pelari** 'runner' has prefix **pe-**, relating to **berlari** 'run'. The prefix in **pelatih** 'trainer, coach' is **peN-** as the word relates to **melatih** 'train (someone)', not to **berlatih** 'train, practice'.

*Prefix **per-***

1.56 There are a very few nouns with prefix **per-**. Several of these have bases with an initial vowel and these could be regarded as having a variant of prefix **pe-**:

pelajar student (**belajar** study)

perantara intermediary, go-between (**berantara** be spaced)

pe(r)tanda sign, indication

pertapa hermit, ascetic (**bertapa** live as an ascetic)

In several cases there is contrast with **peN-**, thus **pelajar** 'student' and **pengajar** 'instructor, teacher' (**mengajar** teach).

*Suffix **-an***

1.57 Suffix **-an** derives nouns from verbs and, to a lesser extent, from nouns, adjectives and other classes. It also co-occurs with full and partial reduplication. It has a number of different functions.

1.58 Suffix **-an** most commonly attaches to verb bases, several different meanings being distinguishable.

1.59 With many verb bases it produces a noun which stands as object (see 3.19) of the action indicated by the verb. There is therefore always an associated transitive verb. The meaning is often expressed in Indonesian as **apa yang di-[base]** 'what is [base]-ed', where [base] is the meaning of the verb base. Thus **makanan** 'food' is **apa yang dimakan** 'what is eaten', **pakaian** 'clothes' is **apa yang dipakai** 'what is worn'.

This is a large, productive set of nouns, including:

lukisan picture	**minuman** drink
tulisan writing	**kenalan** acquaintance
ukiran carving	**pinjaman** loan
sumbangan contribution	**pilihan** choice
tanaman plant	**tujuan** destination

1.60 While these nouns all relate to the object of the corresponding verb, further subgrouping on semantic grounds is possible. Thus some refer to something which results from the action, such as **tulisan** 'writing' and **ukiran** 'carving', while others refer to something already existing which is subjected to the action, such as **makanan** 'food' and **minuman** 'drink'.

1.61 One subset of nouns in this group typically act as modifiers to another noun (see 2.37), although some can occur alone with the same meaning. They tend to be translated by adjectives in English:

(barang) curian stolen (goods)
(binatang) buruan game (animal)
(budak) belian bought (slave)
(rumah) sewaan rented (house)
(sapi) perahan milch (cow)

1.62 The second important group of **-an** nouns with verb bases are action nouns (see 2.53). These describe the action of the verb and can occur as head of a phrase containing prepositions such as **terhadap**. Thus **serangan** 'attack', as in the noun phrase **serangan terhadap musuh** 'an attack on the enemy', expresses the same action as the verb **menyerang** 'attack', as in the construction **Mereka menyerang musuh**

'They attacked the enemy'. This is also a large, productive set of nouns and includes:

ancaman threat
balasan response
bantuan help
keluhan complaint
larangan prohibition
tentangan challenge
kecaman criticism
tuntutan demand
tekanan pressure
tembakan shooting

1.63 With some verb bases **-an** derives nouns indicating the instrument with which the action is performed or the place where the action occurs. With some nouns the instrumental or locative meaning is clear while for others either interpretation is possible. Thus **timbangan** 'scales' can be interpreted as either the instrument with which one weighs (**menimbang** 'weigh') or the place where weighing takes place:

ayunan cradle
kendaraan vehicle
saluran channel
angkutan transport
gilingan mill
bendungan dam
parkiran parking place
pikulan carrying pole
boncengan pillion, bicycle rack
gantungan hanger (for clothes)

1.64 **-an** can also occur with noun bases. Sometimes it has the same meaning as the base, or a meaning which varies only slightly from that of the base, such as **peran, peranan** 'role', while with other words there is a clear difference in meaning. It may indicate a magnification of the base, thus **laut** 'sea', **lautan** 'ocean'. It may have the same meaning as the base but with an additional extension of that meaning, thus **pinggir** 'edge', **pinggiran** 'edge, outskirts'. In some cases the difference in meaning is unpredictable, such as **akhir** 'end', **akhiran** 'suffix':

darat (dry) land : **daratan** mainland
gambar picture : **gambaran** description
keluh sigh, groan : **keluhan** groan, complaint
pasar market : **pasaran** (international) market
ruang space, room : **ruangan** space, (large) room
kubang, kubangan mudhole
landas, landasan base, substratum
gugus, gugusan group, cluster

1.65 One group of **-an** nouns based on nouns derive words which do not differ in meaning from the base but have a different distribution. The base alone typically occurs as a partitive (see 2.29) indicating a natural or artificial grouping or piece of something, and is always preceded by a number, most commonly **se-** 'one'. The **-an** form occurs as the head of a noun phrase and can have a noun modifier (see 2.37). Typically both constructions have the same translation in English:

sederet rumah
deretan rumah
a row of houses
Dia membawa seikat jerami/Dia membawa ikatan jerami.
He was carrying a bundle of hay.

While the base usually occurs in a partitive construction with a preceding number, and is thus always indefinite, the **-an** form can be specific, occurring without a number, either alone or with a determiner:

deretan itu that row
ikatan ini this bundle

The following examples give only the **-an** form, but the base also has the same translation:

gugusan group, cluster
jajaran row, line
kawanan herd, flock
kepingan chip, fragment
lembaran sheet, page
pasangan pair
rangkaian series
timbunan heap, pile

1.66 Suffix **-an** can occur with a reduplicated noun base. There are two major functions.

1.67 The word can indicate a variety of what is indicated by the base. This formation is especially common with words for plants:

obat-obatan medicines
pohon-pohonan (all kinds of) trees
padi-padian cereals
bunga-bungaan (all kinds of) flowers
daun-daunan foliage

rumput-rumputan grasses, weeds
sayur-sayuran vegetables
umbi-umbian (various) edible tubers
buah-buahan fruits
tari-tarian (various kinds of) dances

1.68 The word can indicate a diminutive or something which resembles or imitates what the base specifies. With this function the construction is quite productive and people often create new forms to refer to toys:
mobil-mobilan toy car
rumah-rumahan doll's house
bulan-bulanan target
kuda-kudaan toy horse, hobbyhorse
kapal-kapalan toy boat
perang-perangan manoeuvres
burung-burungan toy bird
orang-orangan puppet; scarecrow

1.69 A few of the forms described in 1.67 with full reduplication of the base can alternatively occur with partial reduplication:
pepohonan trees
rerumputan weeds
dedaunan foliage, greenery

1.70 A few forms, with either full or partial reduplication, have verbal bases:
reruntuhan ruins (**runtuh** collapse)
tumbuh-tumbuhan, tetumbuhan (all sorts of) plants (**tumbuh** grow)
goreng-gorengan fried foods (**goreng** fry)
sesajian (temple) offerings (**saji** offer)

1.71 With adjective bases **-an** derives nouns which refer to something having the characteristic specified by the base:
asam sour : **asaman** pickles
kotor dirty : **kotoran** excrement, garbage
lanjut advanced : **lanjutan** continuation
manis sweet : **manisan** sweets
samar indistinct, vague : **samaran** camouflage, disguise

Circumfix ***ke-...-an***

1.72 Circumfix **ke-...-an** forms nouns from adjectives, verbs and other classes. Such nouns are generally of an abstract nature.

1.73 **Ke-...-an** nouns can have an adjective base. The nouns are all abstract, identifying the characteristic of the adjective:

baik good : **kebaikan** goodness, kindness
bebas free : **kebebasan** freedom
bersih clean : **kebersihan** cleanliness
cantik beautiful : **kecantikan** beauty
sehat healthy : **kesehatan** health
sulit difficult : **kesulitan** difficulty

1.74 In general the meaning of the noun can be predicted from the meaning of the adjective base. In a few cases this is not so:

berat heavy : **keberatan** objection
malu shy : **kemaluan** genitals
terang clear : **keterangan** explanation

1.75 The negative **tidak** 'not' can combine with some adjectives to form a compound base for **ke-...-an** nouns. These correspond to English nouns with prefix *dis-* or *in-*:

adil just : **ketidak-adilan** injustice
jujur honest : **ketidak-jujuran** dishonesty
puas satisfied : **ketidak-puasan** dissatisfaction
senang pleased : **ketidak-senangan** displeasure

1.76 Several adjectives derived with prefix **se-** (see 1.127) can form the base of a **ke-...-an** noun:

seimbang balanced : **keseimbangan** balance, equilibrium
sesuai appropriate, suitable : **kesesuaian** suitability, compatibility
seragam uniform, of the same kind : **keseragaman** uniformity

1.77 The noun can be formed from an intransitive verb:

datang come : **kedatangan** arrival
hidup live : **kehidupan** life

ingin wish : **keinginan** wish, desire
lahir be born : **kelahiran** birth
menang win : **kemenangan** victory
naik go up : **kenaikan** rise, increase

1.78 The base can be a verb with prefix **ber-** or **ter-**. In this case the prefix remains:
berangkat depart : **keberangkatan** departure
berhasil succeed : **keberhasilan** success
terbatas limited : **keterbatasan** limitation
tersedia available : **ketersediaan** availability

1.79 A few nouns are formed from a negated verb or have a compound verb base:
tahu know : **ketidak-tahuan** ignorance
ikut serta participate : **keikut-sertaan** participation

1.80 A few **ke-...-an** nouns are based on modals (see 2.153) or adverbs:
boleh may : **kebolehan** ability, skill
harus must : **keharusan** necessity, a must
kerap frequently : **kekerapan** frequency
lebih more : **kelebihan** excess
mungkin possible : **kemungkinan** possibility

1.81 **ke-...-an** nouns can be based on nouns; this use is very productive and many forms are recent in the language. The **ke-...-an** forms in general mean 'having to do with [base]'. Some forms have a different translation from the base:
anggota member : **keanggotaan** membership
daerah region : **kedaerahan** regionalism
ibu mother : **keibuan** motherliness
pemimpin leader : **kepemimpinan** leadership
wanita woman : **kewanitaan** femininity

1.82 Many **ke-...-an** nouns with noun bases typically modify another noun. Thus **keagamaan** 'having to do with religion' occurs in such phrases as **upacara keagamaan** 'religious ceremony'. Sometimes the translation depends on context; thus **kebangsaan** is translated differently in the

phrases **kebangsaan kapal itu** 'nationality of the ship' and **lagu kebangsaan** 'national song'. When modifying another noun it is frequently translated by an adjective, as in the case of **keagamaan** above. In other cases the **ke-...-an** noun has the same translation as the base. Thus **penduduk** 'population' and **(teori) kependudukan** 'population (theory)'. In either case such nouns are best glossed 'having to do with [base]', except where context makes their meaning clear, as in the following examples:

kedokteran medical, having to do with doctors : **fakultas kedokteran** faculty of medicine

kehutanan forestry, having to do with forests : **petugas kehutanan** forestry official

kepolisian having to do with police : **akademi kepolisian** police academy

keuangan finance, finances : **departemen keuangan** department of finance; **soal keuangan** financial matters

kemasyarakatan social, having to do with society or community : **masalah kemasyarakatan** community problem

kemahasiswaan having to do with students : **hidup kemahasiswaan** student life

keimigrasian having to do with immigration : **undang-undang keimigrasian** immigration laws

1.83 In a few cases **ke-...-an** nouns are formed from nouns already having prefix **peN-**, such as **kependudukan** 'having to do with population' (**penduduk** population **menduduki** occupy) and **kepemimpinan** leadership (**pemimpin** leader, **pimpin** lead).

1.84 With noun bases indicating a person holding a rank or office, **ke-...-an** forms nouns meaning 'the domain administered by [base]':

duta ambassador : **kedutaan** embassy

kaiser emperor : **kekaisaran** empire

lurah village head : **kelurahan** administrative unit headed by a *lurah*

menteri minister : **kementerian** department headed by a minister

raja king : **kerajaan** kingdom

sultan sultan : **kesultanan** sultanate

1.85 With a very few noun bases **ke-...-an** forms nouns indicating a collection of [base]:

pulau island : **kepulauan** archipelago

pustaka book (archaic) : **kepustakaan** bibliography, list of references

1.86 A few nouns are derived from numbers, both definite and indefinite (see 2.106ff), meaning 'a group which consists of [base]':

satu one : **kesatuan** unit

sebelas eleven : **kesebelasan** eleven (soccer team)

seluruh whole : **keseluruhan** entirety

*Circumfix **peN-...-an***

1.87 Most nouns with **peN-...-an** have verbal bases. They refer to the action expressed by the corresponding transitive verb and are often translatable 'the act of doing what the verb refers to'. They can occur with an indication of length of time or with such verbs as **dilakukan** 'carried out'. In the first example below **penulisan** 'the act of writing, the writing' relates to **menulis** 'write'; in the second **pengumpulkan** 'the act of collecting' relates to **mengumpulkan** 'collect', and so on:

Penulisan buku itu memerlukan dua tahun.
The writing of that book took two years.

Pengumpulan cerita-cerita itu dilakukan di New York.
The collecting of these stories was done in New York.

Amerika Serikat telah menghentikan pengiriman bahan makanan.
The USA has stopped the sending of foodstuffs.

Kedua kepala negara menyaksikan penandatanganan perjanjian kerja sama.
The two heads of state witnessed the signing of the cooperation agreement.

In the above examples the **peN-...-an** nouns are all translated by '-ing' verbs. Some **peN-...-an** nouns, however, usually correspond to English nouns which also translate corresponding **-an** nouns (see 1.59). Thus, while **penerjemahan** can be translated 'the translating', it is more

common for 'translation' to occur in English, which also translates **terjemahan**. On the other hand, some **-an** nouns are translated with '-ing' verbs; thus **tulisan** and **penulisan** both translate 'writing'. However, the meanings of the two are always distinct, the **peN-...-an** noun referring to the action, the **-an** noun referring to the result of the action. This is further discussed in section 1.116.

This is a productive affixation and applies very freely to transitive verbs:

pelaksanaan implementation, implementing
pembacaan reading
pencetakan printing
penembakan shooting
pengecekan checking (of facts)
pengiriman dispatch(ing), sending
pengusiran expulsion, expelling
penjualan selling

1.88 Where **meN-** cooccurs with prefixes **per-** (see 1.234ff) and **ber-** (see 1.199), so too can **peN-...-an**. If **meN-** also occurs without those affixes contrasting **peN-...-an** nouns sometimes also occur. Preceded by **peN-** the initial **p** of **per-** is lost (see 1.6):

memberlakukan apply (rules) : **pemberlakuan** application (of rules)
memperoleh get, acquire : **pemerolehan** process of acquiring
memberhentikan dismiss : **pemberhentian** dismissal, cf. **menghentikan** stop : **penghentian** stopping, cessation
mempersatukan unite : **pemersatuan** unification, cf. **menyatukan** unite : **penyatuan** unification

1.89 Nouns derived with **peN-...-an** can also correspond to intransitive verbs with prefix **meN-** (see 1.179). If there is an intransitive **meN-** verb and a transitive verb having the same base there may be **peN-...-an** nouns corresponding to each of them. Thus **penyerahan** '(act of) surrendering, the surrender' corresponds both to intransitive **menyerah** 'surrender, give in' and transitive **menyerahkan** 'surrender, hand over, transfer':

Penyerahaan tentara Jepang terjadi bulan Agustus.
The surrender of the Japanese army occurred in August.
Penyerahaan surat-surat itu dituntut oleh jaksa.
The handing over of the documents was demanded by the prosecutor.

Other examples of **peN-...-an** nouns relating to both transitive and intransitive verbs are:
pendaratan landing : **mendarat** land (intr.), **mendaratkan** land (trans.)
pendaftaran registration : **mendaftar** register (intr.), **mendaftarkan** register (trans.)

1.90 If two transitive verbs have the same base then a **peN-...-an** noun may correspond to only one of them:
penemuan discovery : **menemukan** discover, cf. **menemui** meet
pembangunan development : **membangun** develop, cf. **membangunkan** wake up

On the other hand, there may be a **peN-...-an** noun corresponding to each of the verbs:
menerangi light, illuminate : **penerangan** lighting, illumination; **menerangkan** explain : **penerangan** explanation
menembak shoot (someone) : **penembakan** shooting (of someone); **menembakkan** fire (a bullet) : **penembakan** firing (of a bullet)

1.91 In some cases a **peN-...-an** noun corresponds to the object of an action as well as, or instead of, corresponding to the act. Thus **penemuan** means 'discovery' in the sense of 'something discovered' as well as 'the act of discovering'. Some nouns, like **pengetahuan** 'knowledge (what is known)' and **peninggalan** 'remains; inheritance (what is left behind)' relate only to the object of the verb. Other nouns which relate to the object of the corresponding verb include:
memandang view, observe : **pemandangan** view, scenery
mengumumkan announce : **pengumuman** announcement

1.92 A number of **peN-..-an** nouns refer to the place where the action of the corresponding verb typically occurs. They usually also relate to the action:

menggiling mill : **penggilingan** mill (place); act of milling
mencuci wash : **pencucian** laundry; act of washing
membuang exile : **pembuangan** place of exile; act of exiling
membakar burn : **pembakaran** place for burning; act of burning
menginap spend the night : **penginapan** lodging, inn

*Circumfix **per-...-an***

1.93 Many nouns with this affixation relate to verbs with prefix **ber-**. They indicate the process or result of the action referred to by the corresponding verb:

bekerja work : **pekerjaan** work
belajar study : **pelajaran** lesson
bergerak move : **pergerakan** movement
berjanji promise : **perjanjian** promise, agreement
bersatu unite : **persatuan** unity
bertemu meet : **pertemuan** meeting

1.94 Some **per-...-an** nouns correspond to transitive verbs, indicating the act of doing what the verb indicates:

menolong help : **pertolongan** help, assistance
mengingatkan warn, remind : **peringatan** warning
mencoba try : **percobaan** experiment; attempt
memohon request : **permohonan** request
mengatur put in order : **peraturan** regulation
melawan oppose : **perlawanan** opposition

1.95 Some **per-...-an** nouns refer to the place where the action of the corresponding verb occurs:

berhenti stop : **perhentian** stopping place
berjudi gamble : **perjudian** place for gambling
mencetak print : **percetakan** printery
menenun weave : **pertenunan** textile mill

1.96 Verbs with prefix **per-** (see 1.234ff) always have associated nouns with **per-...-an**, never with **-an** (see 1.57ff).

While such nouns are listed here as having circumfix **per-... -an**, an alternative interpretation would be to treat them as retaining verbal prefix **per-** on the base to which suffix **-an** is then attached:

memperbaiki repair, improve : **perbaikan** repairs, improvement
memperhatikan pay attention to : **perhatian** attention
memperhitungkan calculate : **perhitungan** calculation
mempertimbangkan consider : **pertimbangan** consideration

1.97 **Per-...-an** nouns with noun bases may indicate 'having to do with [base], affairs dealing with [base]':

budak slave : **perbudakan** slavery
musuh enemy : **permusuhan** enmity, hostility
saudara brother : **persaudaraan** brotherhood, friendship
sekutu ally : **persekutuan** alliance
undang-undang law : **perundang-undangan** legislation
wakil deputy, representative : **perwakilan** representation, delegation

1.98 As is the case with abstract **ke-...-an** nouns (1.81–2), many of these forms based on nouns occur attributive to other nouns. While they literally mean 'having to do with [base]', they are usually translated by the same word as the base. The following examples occur as modifiers to other nouns:

buruh worker : (**sengketa**) **perburuhan** labour (dispute)
ekonomi economy : (**masalah**) **perekonomian** economic (matter)
film movie : (**dunia**) **perfilman** movie (world)
hotel hotel : (**bidang**) **perhotelan** hotel (sector)
industri industry : (**daerah**) **perindustrian** industrial (region)
kabar news : (**media**) **perkabaran** news (media)
kayu timber : (**buruh**) **perkayuan** timber (worker)
rumah house : (**kompleks**) **perumahan** housing (complex)

1.99 Some **per-...-an** nouns with noun bases indicate 'a collection of [base]' or 'the place where a large number of [base] are found':

air water : **perairan** waters
alat instrument : **peralatan** equipment
bukit hill : **perbukitan** hilly region
gelang bracelet : **pergelangan** ankle/wrist
istilah term : **peristilahan** terminology
pustaka book (archaic) : **perpustakaan** library

1.100 Some **per-...-an** nouns mean both 'affairs to do with [base]' (see 1.98) and 'place where a large number of [base] are found/collection of [base]' (1.99):

ikan fish : **perikanan** fishery affairs; fishery
kebun garden : **perkebunan** horticulture; plantation
kota town : **perkotaan** urban affairs; urban area
sawah rice field : **persawahan** rice cultivation; cluster of rice fields
ternak livestock : **peternakan** animal husbandry; animal farm
toko shop : **pertokoan** shopping matters; shopping area

The different meanings are made clear in context:

Dia ingin mendapat pekerjaan di peternakan ayam.
She wants to get a job on a chicken farm.
Dia ingin mendapat pekerjaan di bidang peternakan.
She wants to get a job in animal husbandry.

Ayahnya mengurus perkebunan teh.
Her father manages a tea plantation.
Ayahnya pejabat di jawatan perkebunan.
Her father is an official in the horticulture office.

1.101 Some **per-...-an** nouns with noun bases have a meaning the same as or very similar to that of the base:

batas limit; border : **perbatasan** border
debat debate : **perdebatan** debate
masalah matter, problem : **permasalahan** matter, problem
muka face; surface : **permukaan** surface
serikat union : **perserikatan** union
soal matter, problem : **persoalan** matter, problem

syarat condition, regulation : **persyaratan** regulations

1.102 With cardinal numbers **per-...-an** forms nouns referring to road intersections. Only the following occur:

tiga three : **pertigaan** three-way intersection
empat four : **perempatan** cross-roads
lima five : **perlimaan** five-way intersection

*Circumfix **pe-...-an***

1.103 The number of nouns with this affix is limited. It occurs unpredictably with some bases instead of **per-...-an**. (In contexts where the **r** of **per-** is regularly lost, as in **peternakan** 'animal farm' (see 1.4), **per-...-an** is recognised as occurring.) Most **pe-...-an** nouns are based on nouns and indicate 'the place where a large number of [base] occur'. A few also mean 'affairs to do with [base]'. Several have bases which are not nouns:

dalam inside : **pedalaman** interior, inland
desa village : **pedesaan** rural; rural area
gunung mountain : **pegunungan** mountain range
jagal butcher : **pejagalan** abattoir
bertualang undertake adventure : **petualangan** adventure
menggadaikan pawn : **pegadaian** pawn shop

1.104 With some bases both **per-...-an** and **pe-...-an** occur, with the same meaning. Some speakers use only one or the other:

bermukim reside : **permukiman, pemukiman** settlement
dupa incense : **perdupaan, pedupaan** censer, incense burner
kubur grave : **perkuburan, pekuburan** cemetery
sawah rice field : **persawahan, pesawahan** rice cultivation; cluster of rice fields

*Suffixes **-wan, -wati** and **-man***

1.105 The suffix **-wan** occurs with bases, most of which are nouns, to indicate a person who is regularly associated with [base].

harta wealth, property : **hartawan** wealthy person
ilmu science : **ilmuwan** scientist
olahraga sport : **olahragawan** sportsman/woman

rohani spiritual : **rohaniwan** clergyman
sastra literature : **sastrawan** man of letters
sejarah history : **sejara(h)wan** historian
warta news : **wartawan** journalist

1.106 Suffixes **-wan** and **-wati**, both borrowed from Sanskrit, are the only affixes in the language which make a gender distinction (see also 1.42). The form **-wan** refers to both male and female unless it is contrasted with **-wati**, which is specifically feminine:

karya work : **karyawati** female worker
seni art : **seniwati** female artist
sukarela voluntary : **sukarelawati** female volunteer
wisuda graduation : **wisudawati** graduating female

1.107 The suffix **-man** derives one noun:

seni art : **seniman** artist

Suffixes -anda, -nda

1.108 These are added to a number of pronouns and kin terms to form honorifics, that is, forms of address which show respect. Suffix **-anda** is added to bases ending in a consonant and **-nda** to bases ending in a vowel. In most cases a base loses final **k**, resulting in a final vowel, which is then followed by **-nda**:

anak : **anakanda** child
kakak : **kakanda** older sibling
ayah : **ayahanda** father
nenek : **nenenda** grandmother
ibu : **ibunda** mother
adik : **adinda** younger sibling

The word **ayunda** 'older sister (honorific)' is a borrowing from Javanese and has no base in Indonesian.

Prefix ke-

1.109 This is added to a few bases to form nouns:

hendak want : **kehendak** desire
kasih love : **kekasih** beloved
rangka framework, skeleton : **kerangka** skeleton
tua old : **ketua** chairman

Prefix ***ter-***

1.110 This prefix occurs with a small group of nouns used in legal proceedings, such as **terdakwa** 'accused person':

Satu demi satu para terdakwa dijatuhi hukuman penjara.
One by one the accused were sentenced to jail.

These forms also occur as verbs (see 1.265); as nouns the following occur:

tergugat the accused
terhukum person who has been sentenced
terpidana convicted person
tersangka the suspect
tertuduh the accused

Prefix ***pra-***

1.111 Prefix **pra-** 'pre-' is a borrowing from Sanskrit:

prasejarah prehistory (**sejarah** history)
prasangka prejudice (**sangka** supposition)
prakata foreword (**kata** word)
prasyarat precondition (**syarat** condition)

Comparison of noun-forming affixes

1.112 While generalisations can be made about the functions of all noun-forming affixes, there are always exceptions, words which can only be placed in a category with difficulty or not at all. Many irregularities and minor functions of affixes are not considered in the above sections.

1.113 Further, there is not always a clear-cut distinction between the functions of two affixes. The result is that a particular base might take two affixes with little or no difference in meaning. Thus, while **peN-** usually occurs with verb bases (1.45) and **-wan** with noun bases (1.105), there are a few bases which allow both affixes to occur, with the same meaning:

pirsa : **pemirsa, pirsawan** television viewer
usaha : **pengusaha, usahawan** business person

1.114 In some cases a word is derived with one of two affixes, the choice being unpredictable for a particular base, as seen from the following pair:

menolong help : **pertolongan** help, assistance
membantu help : **bantuan** help, assistance

1.115 Sometimes the difference in meaning between two derived forms depends on whether the form relates directly to the meaning of the base or to the meaning of another derived form. This is the case with the pair **ke-...-an** and **peN-...-an**.

The meaning of the former relates immediately to the meaning of the adjective base (see 1.73), while the meaning of the latter relates to the meaning of the corresponding transitive verb (1.87). Thus:

bersih clean : **kebersihan** cleanliness; **membersihkan** make clean : **pembersihan** (act of) cleansing
bebas free : **kebebasan** freedom; **membebaskan** release, liberate : **pembebasan** (act of) liberating

1.116 Affixes **-an** and **peN-...-an** frequently have the same verbal base. In such cases the meaning of **-an** usually relates to the object of the action, (**apa yang di-[base]** - see 1.59), while **peN-...-an** relates to the action itself (see 1.187):

menerjemahkan translate : **terjemahan** translation; **penerjemahan** act of translating
menabung save : **tabungan** savings (money which is saved); **penabungan** act of saving (the saving of money)
menulis write : **tulisan** writing (something which is written); **penulisan** writing (the act of writing something)
memilih choose : **pilihan** choice, selection (something chosen or selected); **pemilihan** act of choosing, selecting

Terjemahan ini tepat sekali.
This translation is very accurate.
Penerjemahan buku itu dilakukan tahun lalu.
The translation/translating of that book was undertaken last year.

1.117 Where **per-...-an** and **peN-...-an** nouns have the same base the former usually relates to a **ber-** intransitive verb while the latter relates to a **meN-** transitive verb. Thus **perkembangan** 'development' relates to intransitive **berkembang** 'develop, expand': **perkembangan bahasa Indonesia** 'the development of Indonesian' relates to **Bahasa Indonesia berkembang** 'Indonesian develops', while **pengembangan** 'development, the developing (of something)' relates to **mengembangkan** 'develop, build': **pengembangan bahasa Indonesia** 'the development of Indonesian' relates to **(Mereka) mengembangkan bahasa Indonesia** '(They) develop Indonesian'. Other examples are:

perbuatan action, act : **berbuat** do; **pembuatan** (the act of) making : **membuat** make

perkumpulan association : **berkumpul** gather; **pengumpulan** collecting : **mengumpulkan** collect

Derivation of adjectives

1.118 The majority of adjectives consist of free bases, as discussed in section 2.98. A limited number of adjectives are derived forms.

*Prefix **peN-***

1.119 Prefix **peN-** usually occurs with verb bases to derive nouns indicating one who carries out the action described by the base (see 1.46). It also occurs with adjective bases indicating human characteristics. These words are usually translated by nouns indicating one who is regularly identified with the characteristic:

diam quiet : **pendiam** quiet person
malas lazy : **pemalas** lazy person
malu shy : **pemalu** shy person
marah angry : **pemarah** hot head
riang cheerful : **periang** cheerful person

1.120 While these words are translated by nouns they actually behave more like adjectives. Thus they can be coordinated with adjectives:

Kakak saya seorang yang tenang dan pendiam.
My older sister is a calm and quiet person.

They are negated by **tidak**, not **bukan**:
Dia tidak pemarah.
He's not hot-tempered.

They can follow **yang**, which is common with adjectives but rare with nouns (see 3.101):
Dia bukan orang yang pemalu.
She's not a bashful person.

They can be preceded by such modifying adverbs as **terlalu** 'too', **paling** 'most', **begitu** 'so', **agak** 'rather', and followed by such adverbs as **sekali** 'very' (see 2.100):
Pangeran Edward terlalu pendiam.
Prince Edward is too quiet/a too quiet person.

1.121 A few **peN-** forms based on adjectives do not behave as described in section 1.120 but act like nouns (see 1.49).

1.122 A few **peN-** adjectives are based on verbs:
tidur sleep : **penidur** sleepyhead
menangis cry : **penangis** cry-baby
lupa forget : **pelupa** forgetful person
memilih choose : **pemilih** particular, choosy

These also behave like adjectives, as described in 1.120:
Anda pelupa sekali.
You are a really forgetful person.
Pasar musik Hong Kong sangat pemilih.
The Hong Kong music market is very choosy.

*Circumfix **ke-...-an***

1.123 This occurs with a small number of common adjectives and with **banyak** and **lebih** to indicate excess, being synonymous with **terlalu** 'too':
kecil small : **kekecilan** too small
mahal expensive : **kemahalan** too expensive
manis sweet : **kemanisan** too sweet
tua old : **ketuaan** too old
banyak much : **kebanyakan** too much
lebih more : **kelebihan** excessive, too much

This function of **ke-...-an** is borrowed from Javanese and is not considered standard by all educated speakers:

Baju ini kebesaran bagi saya.
This shirt is too big for me.
kamu kebanyakan uang.
You have too much money.

1.124 Occurring with a limited number of reduplicated noun and adjective bases **ke-...-an** forms adjectives meaning 'possessing to some degree the characteristic indicated by [base]'. It most commonly occurs with colour terms, such as **kemerah-merahan** 'reddish':

Warna kemejanya kuning kemerah-merahan.
His shirt is a reddish yellow.

With noun bases it usually has a negative connotation:

kebiru-biruan bluish
kegelap-gelapan rather dark
kegila-gilaan slightly crazy
kekuning-kuningan yellowish
kebelanda-belandaan westernised (acting like a European)
keilmu-ilmuan quasi-scientific

1.125 Some speakers allow an unreduplicated base with colour terms and some other adjectives:

kehijauan greenish
keperakan silvery
kepucatan rather pale

In the case of **keemasan** 'golden' reduplication of the base does not occur.

Reduplication does not occur if the base is already reduplicated:

kanak-kanak young child : **kekanak-kanakan** childish
laki-laki man : **kelaki-lakian** mannish (of a woman)
malu-malu shy : **kemalu-maluan** rather shy

Suffixes ***-i, -wi, -iah***

1.126 The suffix **-i/-wi** derives adjectives from nouns. It is very limited in application, occurring only with some words borrowed from Sanskrit and Arabic. The variant **-i** follows a final consonant and **-wi** follows a final vowel:

alam the world, nature : **alami** natural
dunia world : **duniawi** worldly (**hal-hal duniawi** worldly matters)
hewan animal : **hewani** bestial, relating to animals
Islam Islam : **Islami** Islamic
manusia human : **manusiawi** humane
surga heaven : **surgawi** heavenly

With some words an alternative suffix **-iah** occurs:

alami, alamiah natural
badani, badaniah physical, bodily

Special forms occur with base **bumi** 'world': **bumiawi** 'earthly, terrestrial', and with **roh** 'spirit': **rohani, rohaniah** 'spiritual'.

Prefix ***se-***

1.127 One function of **se-** is to form adjectives meaning 'sharing [base], having the same [base]', where the base is a noun. There are two distributions for these forms. They may occur in a noun phrase, following the noun and preceding a possessor:

Dia teman sekelas saya.
He is a class-mate of mine.
rekan sekamarnya
his room mate

The possessor may be absent if it is clear from context:

Dia pergi dengan dua puluh delapan orang senasib.
He went with twenty eight people who had suffered the same fate.

Alternatively, the **se-**[base] form may occur as a predicate and be followed by an accompaniment phrase beginning with **dengan** 'with' (see 2.210):

Dia sekelas dengan saya.
He's in the same class as me.

Istrinya seranjang dengan kedua anaknya.
His wife shared a bed with her two children.

Other words in this group include:
searah (dengan) having the same direction/purpose (as)
seimbang (dengan) in balance (with)
sekantor (dengan) sharing an office (with)
selaras (dengan) in harmony (with)
sependapat (dengan) of the same opinion (as)
seumur (dengan) being the same age (as)
setara (dengan) equal (to), matching, on the same level (as)

1.128 Prefix **se-** also forms equative adjective phrases. These are discussed in 2.103.

1.129 The combination of **se-** and a noun sometimes forms an adjective meaning 'all, the whole [base]', being equivalent to **seluruh** 'whole'. Thus **se-Asia** 'all-Asia', as in **konperensi pangan se-Asia** 'all-Asia food conference':
se-Indonesia all-Indonesia
sedunia (whole) world
(orang) sekampung the whole village

Suffix -an

1.130 With measures of time, weight and distance, **-an** forms adjectives meaning 'done, happening, appearing once in the measure indicated by the base'. Thus, **tahun** 'year' is the base for **tahunan** 'annual, yearly', as in **ujian tahunan** 'annual exam':
bulanan monthly
harian daily
mingguan weekly
kiloan by the kilo
meteran by the meter

1.131 Nouns such as **koran** 'newspaper' and **majalah** 'magazine', are frequently omitted when followed by **harian** 'daily' and **mingguan** 'weekly', these words then acting as nouns:
(koran) harian daily (paper)

(**majalah**) **mingguan** weekly (magazine)

1.132 With some noun bases **-an** derives adjectives meaning 'having many [base], containing many [base]' or 'suffering from [base]':

cacing worm : **cacingan** infested with worms
jamur fungus, mould : **jamuran** mouldy
kudis scabies : **kudisan** suffering from scabies
semut ant : **semutan** suffer pins and needles
uban grey hair : **ubanan** grey haired

*Prefix **tuna-***

1.133 The prefix **tuna-** 'without' is a borrowing from Sanskrit. It usually occurs with bases which are themselves from Sanskrit, to produce euphemisms for more common terms:

tunakarya unemployed (**karya** work)
tunasusila immoral (**susila** decent, moral)
tunawisma homeless (**wisma** building, house)

*Prefix **antar-***

1.134 This is a borrowing from Sanskrit, meaning 'inter-':

antarbangsa international (**bangsa** people, nation)
antarbudaya cross-cultural (**budaya** culture)
antarpulau inter-island (**pulau** island)

Derivation of adverbs and adjuncts

1.135 Adjuncts are components of a clause which give information about such matters as place, time, frequency, and manner (see 2.165ff). The term adverb is used here to refer to adjuncts of manner (see 2.166) and modifying adverbs within adjective phrases (see 2.100). Adverbs of manner based on numbers are described in sections 1.159–60, 1.163.

*Affixation **se-...-nya** with reduplicated bases*

1.136 With reduplicated adjective bases this affixation derives adverbs meaning 'as [base] as possible':

baik good : **sebaik-baiknya** as well as possible
cepat fast : **secepat-cepatnya** as fast as possible
keras hard : **sekeras-kerasnya** as hard as possible

lekas soon, quickly : **selekas-lekasnya** as soon/quickly as possible
tinggi high : **setinggi-tingginya** as high as possible

Ali melempar batu itu sejauh-jauhnya.
Ali threw the stone as far as possible.
Dia lari secepat-cepatnya.
She ran as fast as possible.
Dia harus dihukum seberat-beratnya.
He must be punished as severely as possible.

These adverbs are further discussed in 2.173–4.

1.137 A few words of this structure mean 'at the most [base]'; bases are adjectives or modifying adverbs (see 2.100–1):
dikit, sedikit a little : **sedikit-dikitnya** at least
kurang less : **sekurang-kurangnya** at least, at the least
lambat late : **selambat-lambatnya** at the latest
lebih more : **selebih-lebihnya** at most

Saya harus berangkat ke Indonesia selambat-lambatnya tanggal 25 Juli.
I must leave for Indonesia by the 25th of July at the latest.
Anda harus menunggu sekurang-kurangnya sepuluh menit.
You must wait at least ten minutes.

1.138 These forms can occasionally occur without reduplication:
Sedikitnya dua puluh orang tewas.
At least twenty people died.
Dia sadar sepenuhnya bahwa saya benar.
He's fully aware that I am correct.

1.139 A few forms are based on words of other classes:
setidak-tidaknya at least
sedapat-dapatnya as well as possible, as much as one is capable of

Kalau tidak bisa datang sendiri, setidak-tidaknya menelpon.

If you can't come yourself, at least phone.
Saya akan berusaha sedapat-dapatnya.
I will try as well as I can/to the best of my ability.

1.140 A few forms, based on adjectives or other classes, have meanings such as 'as one likes'. Most of these occur without reduplication of the base:

seenak-enaknya, seenaknya as one likes
semau-maunya, semaunya as one likes
seadanya as it is, as one finds it
sekenanya at random, in disorganised fashion

Mereka parkir seenaknya.
They park just as they please.

1.141 A number of forms, such as **sebenarnya** 'actually' and **seharusnya** 'should' are sentence adjuncts. These are discussed in 4.106–7. Several forms, including **setibanya** 'on his arrival' and **sepulangnya** 'on his return home', function as subordinate clauses or time, discussed in section 4.71.

Suffix -an with reduplicated bases

1.142 A few adverbs of manner are formed by adding **-an** to reduplicated adjective, verb and noun bases:

angin-anginan capriciously, in fits and starts
besar-besaran on a large scale
habis-habisan exhaustively, vehemently
kecil-kecilan on a small scale
mati-matian with great effort
terang-terangan frankly, openly
terus-terusan constantly, on and on
untung-untungan relying on luck

Ibu memarahi saya habis-habisan.
Mother scolded me vehemently.

Circumfix se-...-an with reduplicated bases

1.143 This occurs with two reduplicated bases to form adjuncts of duration (see 2.204):

sehari-harian all day long
semalam-malaman all night long

*Prefix **ber-** with reduplicated bases*

1.144 Nouns indicating periods of time and distance can be reduplicated and prefixed with **ber-** to form adjuncts of duration (see 2.203):

berjam-jam for hours
berminggu-minggu for weeks
bertahun-tahun for years
bermeter-meter (for) meters (and meters)
berkilo-kilo (for) kilometers

Derivation of numbers

1.145 As well as occurring in noun phrases (see 2.13ff) some numbers can occur as adverbs of manner (see 2.177). All derived forms based on numbers are described in the following sections.

*Prefix **se-***

1.146 Meaning 'one' **se-** has a wide distribution, replacing the full number **satu** before classifiers (see 2.21) and partitives (see 2.27ff) and in a number of other contexts.

1.147 It occurs with group numbers (see 2.107) to form cardinals:

sepuluh ten
sebelas eleven
seratus one hundred
seribu one thousand
sejuta a million

1.148 **se-** also occurs in fractions (see 1.149):

seperempat one quarter
seperlima one fifth

It forms special fractions **setengah** and **separuh** 'half'.

*Prefix **per-***

1.149 This forms fractions, being prefixed to the denominator and preceded by the numerator:

sepertiga one third
tiga perlima three fifths
tujuh persepuluh seven tenths
sembilan perseratus nine hundredths

While **seperdua** 'half' is possible, the special forms given in 1.148 are more common.

1.150 In the sporting term **perempat final** 'quarter final' **per-** is not preceded by a number:

Dia maju ke perempat final.
He advanced to the quarter final.

Prefix ***ke-***

1.151 This is added to cardinal numbers to form ordinals (see 2.16):

kedua second **ketiga** third
kesepuluh tenth **kedua puluh tiga** twenty third

For 'first' the form **kesatu** occurs but **pertama** is more common.

Ordinals are sometimes written with Roman numerals, in which case **ke-** is not shown:

HUT XIX (= hari ulang tahun kesembilan belas)
nineteenth anniversary

1.152 Prefix **ke-** also forms the interrogative ordinal **keberapa** 'how many' (see 4.20) and the indefinite ordinal **kesekian** 'umpteenth' (see 2.198).

1.153 Forms derived with **ke-** are also used for collective numbers (see 2.17):

keempat all four **kelima** all five

Suffix ***-an***

1.154 This suffix occurs with group numbers (see 2.107) with several meanings.

1.155 With group numbers, but not with their multiples, **-an** indicates an indefinite multiple of the group number:

puluhan tens
ribuan thousands

puluhan ribu mobil tens of thousands of cars

Belasan indicates an indefinite number between ten and twenty:

belasan hari about two weeks

1.156 With multiples of group numbers it indicates an estimate, 'about so many, that number or so':

delapan puluhan about eighty, eighty odd
dua ratusan about two hundred

Rumah mereka ditembaki oleh lima puluhan pasukan tak dikenal.
Their houses were fired on by about fifty unidentified soldiers.

1.157 With dates which are multiples of **puluh** the form refers to a particular decade:

tahun-tahun delapan puluhan
the nineteen eighties
Ia anggota politbiro PKI pada awal 1920-an.
He was a member of the PKI politbureau in the early 1920s.

Prefix ***ber-***

1.158 Attached to cardinal numbers from 'two' to 'four' this derives numbers referring to a group:

berdua both, two together
bertiga all three, three together
berempat all four, four together

These forms occur with pronouns (see 2.79 for examples) but not with nouns.

1.159 These forms also function as adverbs of manner meaning 'together in a group of [base]':

Mereka selalu bersepeda berdua.
They always cycle together (in a group of two).
Mereka makan sepiring nasi berempat.
They ate a plate of rice together in a group of four.

1.160 With reduplicated numbers from 'two' to 'four' **ber-** forms adverbs indicating '(acting) in a number of groups of [base] at a time':

berdua-dua two at a time, two by two
bertiga-tiga three at a time, three by three
berempat-empat four at a time, four by four

Mereka masuk berdua-dua.
They entered two by two.

Prefix **ber-** can be omitted from these forms (see 1.25).

1.161 Attached to reduplicated group numbers **ber-** forms indefinite multiples of the base:
berpuluh-puluh tens
beratus-ratus hundreds
berjuta-juta millions

berpuluh-puluh tahun yang lalu
decades ago
Beribu-ribu orang menderita akibat perang itu.
Thousands of people suffered as a result of the war.

1.162 With reduplicated nouns referring to containers, weights and measures, **ber-** forms quantifiers meaning 'in numbers of [base]' (see 2.33), similar in function to forms based on numbers (see 1.161) and on periods of time (see 1.144):
berbotol-botol bottles and bottlesful
berkarung-karung sacksful
berkeranjang-keranjang basketsful
berkilo-kilo kilos and kilos
bermeter-meter meters and meters
bertimbun-timbun piles and piles
berton-ton tons and tons

Bangunan ini menghabiskan berton-ton batu bata.
This building used up tons and tons of bricks.
Polisi menyita berbotol-botol minuman keras.
Police confiscated bottles and bottles of alcohol.

*Circumfix **ber-...-an***

1.163 this occurs with the numeral **dua** 'two', with optional reduplication, to form an adverb meaning 'together', of action performed by two people:
Dia duduk berdua(-dua)an dengan pacarnya.
He sat together with his girl friend.

Derivation of verbs

1.164 For ease and clarity of description two groups of verbs are recognised here: primary and secondary verbs. Primary verbs are those which occur with primary affixation, as described in sections 1.165–2.45. Secondary verbs are those which have secondary affixation, which replaces primary affixation under certain circumstances. Secondary verbs are described in sections 1.246–85.

Every verb is either transitive or intransitive. Transitive verbs can have an object and a passive form; intransitive verbs have neither. Transitivity is discussed in 3.18–25.

Verbs are based on nouns, adjectives and other classes. A base which cannot occur alone as a word is a verbal base. Thus **atur** cannot occur alone but is the base for verbs such as **mengatur** 'organise'; it is therefore a verbal base.

Primary verbs

1.165 Primary verbs are either intransitive or transitive. Intransitive primary verbs are simple, that is, they have no affix, or have prefix **ber-** or **meN-**. All transitive primary verbs occur with one of the inflectional voice affixes, **meN-** or **di-**. Transitive verbs are either simple, having no affix other than **meN-** or **di-**, or they occur with one of the following affixes or affix combinations: **-kan**, **-i**, **per-**, **per-...-kan**, **per-...-i**.

Simple intransitive verbs

1.166 A simple intransitive verb occurs alone without an affix. There are a great many of these, of which the following are a small sample:

bangun wake up
benci hate
cinta love
datang come
duduk sit
gagal fail
hidup live
ikut follow
ingat remember
jatuh fall
kembali return
lenyap disappear
lulus pass
lupa forget
mandi bath
masuk enter

mati die
mulai begin
pergi go
selesai finish
tenggelam sink
tiba arrive
menang win
percaya believe
pindah move
tahu know
terbang fly
tidur sleep

*Intransitive verbs with **ber-***

1.167 Some **ber-** verbs have verbal bases. It is difficult to assign a meaning to **ber-** with such bases other than that its presence is necessary to produce a well-formed verb. Some of these verbs take a complement (see 3.63–4):

berangkat leave
berbaring lie
berbuat do
bekerja work
bertemu meet
berpikir think
bercukur shave
berenang swim
belajar study
berhenti stop
berdiri stand
berubah change
bertiup blow
berputar turn

1.168 A few **ber-** verbs which refer to reflexive action optionally take **diri** 'self' in a compound form:

berdiam (diri) be silent
berjemur (diri) sunbake, go out in the sun
berhias (diri) dress, groom oneself

In this construction **diri** cannot be expanded as it can when it is a separate phrase (see 2.162ff).

1.169 The largest group of **ber-** verbs have noun bases. With these it is possible to assign a function to **ber-**. There is considerable variation in the categories recognised by different writers and the function of the prefix with some noun bases is open to different interpretations. However, there is little purpose in striving to identify a large number of categories, each with a small number of members and a very narrow semantic range. The groupings suggested here could all be subdivided into smaller groups.

1.170 The largest group has a general meaning 'have, own [base]'. Some of these verbs do not translate well as 'have

[base]', such as **berdebu** 'dusty' (literally 'have dust'), or **berguna** 'useful' ('have use'); in such cases the appropriate gloss is provided. Some of these verbs take a complement (see 3.64). This group includes:

berguna useful
berisi contain
berduri thorny
berumur be aged
bermaksud mean
bernama be named
berpendapat have the opinion
beristeri have a wife
berbau smell
berdebu dusty
beranak have children
berhasil succeed

1.171 Some verbs mean 'to use, wear, travel by [base]'. To this group can be added forms based on pronouns meaning 'use [base] when speaking to someone':

bertopi wear a hat
berdasi wear a tie
berjas wear a jacket
bersepatu wear shoes
berbedak wear powder
berkuda ride a horse
berperahu go by boat
bersepeda ride a bicycle
berbapak use **bapak** 'father' when addressing someone
beraku use **aku** 'I' when speaking to someone

1.172 Another subgroup of **ber-** verbs mean 'produce [base]'. Many of these refer to production of the sound indicated by the base:

berkeringat sweat
bertelur lay an egg
beranak give birth
berbuah bear fruit
berteriak scream
berkata say
bercerita relate, tell a story
berbohong lie
berdesing whizz, buzz
berkokok crow
berderit squeak
berbunyi make a sound

1.173 Some **ber-** verbs with noun bases are reciprocal, indicating that two people stand in the same relationship to each other, as specified by the base. Thus **bertetangga** 'be neighbours', as in **Ali dan Tomo bertetangga** 'Ali and Tomo are neighbours (with each other)':

berteman be friends
bermusuh be enemies
bersahabat be friends

berkenalan be acquaintances
berkerabat be related
bertunangan be engaged to each other
bersaudara be relatives of same generation
bersaingan be competitors, compete (with each other)

The verbs **berkenalan, bertunangan, bersaingan** and similar forms having suffix **-an** are regarded here as being built on bases **kenalan** 'acquaintance', **tunangan** 'fiance', **saingan** 'competitor', and so on. They could alternatively be treated as **ber-...-an** reciprocal verbs (see 1.255ff) built on verbal bases such as **kenal, tunang** and **saing.**

1.174 Some **ber-** verbs refer to work which is regularly performed or done for a living. In this group are included some verbs with verbal bases:
berdagang engage in trade
berkebun own or work gardens
berkuli work as a labourer
berladang own or work unirrigated fields
bersawah own or work rice fields
bertani farm
bertukang work as an artisan
beternak engage in animal farming

Some verbs in this group optionally have a complement (see 3.64). These differ from transitive verbs with an object in that they specify habitual action rather than an action performed on a particular object:
berburu (rusa) engage in (deer) hunting
bertanam (jagung) plant (corn) (as an occupation)

1.175 Similar to verbs listed in 1.174 are those which mean 'engage in the activity specified by the base'; many of these are based on nouns referring to types of sport:
berolah raga play sport
bertinju box
bergulat wrestle
berpiknik go on a picnic
berperang wage war
berbelanja go shopping

bertamasya go sight-seeing
berdarmawisata go on an excursion

1.176 Many **ber-** verbs have noun bases which are phrases. Although these are written as separate words they act as a single unit to which **ber-** is attached. As free forms the bases are noun phrases consisting usually of a noun and noun (see 2.37) or noun and adjective (see 2.45). Thus the phrase **celana pendek** 'short pants' becomes the base of the verb **bercelana pendek** 'wear short pants'. Other compounds consist of a noun plus number. In a free phrase the number precedes the noun (see 2.14); it is placed after the noun when the phrase becomes a verbal base. Thus **dua anak** 'two children' forms the base of **beranak dua** 'have two children':

berbaju kulit wear a leather coat
berkaki panjang have long legs
berkebun kelapa have a coconut plantation
berkepala gundul have a shaved head
berpendidikan rendah be poorly educated
bertubuh kurus be thin (have a thin body)
bertingkat tiga have three storeys, three-storey

Such phrasal verb bases should not be confused with verbs followed by a complement. In the sentence **Dia bernama Ali** 'He is named Ali', the verb **bernama** 'have the name' is followed by a complement, **Ali**. The words **nama** 'name' and **Ali** do not form a phrase but rather a clause, **Nama(nya) Ali** 'His name is Ali'. Such complements are described in section 3.64.

1.177 A few **ber-** verbs have adjective bases:

bergembira be glad	**berbahagia** be happy
berterus-terang be frank	**bersedih** be sad
berkeras persist	**bersabar** be patient

*Prefix **ber-** combined with prefix **si-***

1.178 The combination **bersi-** occurs with a few verbs. In all cases **si-** is optional:

bersikeras, berkeras persist
bersitegang, bertegang persevere
bersikukuh, berkukuh be stubborn, persist

bersijingkat, berjingkat walk on tiptoes

*Intransitive verbs with **meN-***

1.179 Some intransitive verbs with prefix **meN-** have verbal bases. **MeN-** cannot be assigned a function with these verbs, other than that its presence is required to produce a well-formed verb. Verbs in this group include:

menangis cry
menyerah surrender
melapor report
menyanyi sing
mengeluh complain
meluncur slide
menikah marry
mendidih boil
mengungsi flee
meledak explode
menyuruk hide
menelentang lie on the back
menginap spend the night
melompat jump

1.180 Many **meN-** intransitive verbs have noun bases. As with **ber-** verbs based on nouns, a number of different meanings can be identified.

1.181 Some verbs mean 'go to [base]', where the base refers to a location:

mendarat land
melaut go to sea
menepi move to the side
mengutara go north
menyeberang cross to the other side

1.182 Others mean 'produce [base]', where the base is a sound:

mengeong miouw
menjerit scream
menggonggong bark
mengerang groan
meraung roar
mendengkur snore
mengeluh groan
memekik scream

1.183 Some **meN-** verbs with noun bases mean 'become like, resemble [base]':

memuncak reach a crest, culminate
menggunung pile up, mount up
membatu petrify, harden
membukit form a heap, resemble a hill
membabi buta rage blindly

1.184 With adjective bases **meN-** usually forms verbs meaning 'become [base], take on the characteristic of [base]':

menghebat intensify
menghangat warm up
mereda calm down, abate
mengering dry
menyempit tighten, constrict
membengkak swell
menguning grow yellow
membusuk rot, decay
memutih become white
memerah redden, become red

Prefix **meN-** cannot be added to all adjectives with this meaning. The number of such forms is limited and unpredictable, although there is some degree of productivity.[4]

The verb **memanjang** (**panjang** 'long') means 'stretch', as in **Pantai itu memanjang dari barat ke timur** 'The beach stretches from west to east'.

*Comparison of simple, **ber-** and **meN-** intransitive verbs*

1.185 Verb bases occur with **ber-**, **meN-** or without affixation unpredictably. For instance, there is no explanation for the following forms other than usage: **mandi** 'bath', **berbaring** 'lie down', **menginap** 'stay'. With such forms **ber-** and **meN-** can be ascribed no function other than that they are required with particular bases.

If the base is other than a verb then either **ber-** or **meN-** must occur to derive a verb. Here also there is sometimes no predictability about which affix will occur. Thus: **berteriak** 'yell, shout', **memekik** 'scream'.

With a number of bases **ber-** and **meN-** can substitute for each other, although usually one form is more common than the other. A number of these forms mean 'produce the sound indicated by the base'. Others have verb bases:

bernyanyi, menyanyi sing
berderit, menderit scream

[4] There is disagreement as to the acceptability of some forms. Thus *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia* (1991) gives **membiru** 'become blue', whereas Dardjowidjojo (1978: 264) rules this word out. Such disagreement reflects a degree of productivity and the gradual spread of **meN-** to an increasing number of adjective bases.

berteduh, meneduh take shelter
berdengkur, mendengkur snore
berbekas, membekas leave a trace or mark
berdoa, mendoa pray
bersebar, menyebar spread out
berludah, meludah spit

In a few other cases two forms occur but with a clear difference in meaning:
tinggal live : **meninggal** die
pulang go home : **berpulang** die
lari run, flee, escape : **berlari** run

Transitive verb affixation

1.186 Transitive verbs are inflected for voice; **meN-** marks active voice, **di-** marks passive voice. Voice is discussed in 3.26–40. Under some circumstances these affixes are omitted, for instance **meN-** in certain imperative constructions, **di-** with first and second person agent. These processes are described in the appropriate places.

In addition, **meN-** is usually omitted with a few common verbs: **makan** 'eat', **minum** 'drink', **minta** 'request', **mohon** 'request', although affixed forms of these, **memakan** etc., do occur. Without the prefix these behave differently from other transitive verbs in some ways; for instance, they cannot take bound objects, such as **-nya** (see 2.71).

The verb **mengerti** 'understand' is unusual in that the prefix does not drop in the passive (see 3.27), thus **dimengerti** 'understood'. Some grammarians account for this by treating **mengerti** as not having a prefix, **meng** being part of the base. However, the verb was originally based on **arti** 'meaning' and **meng-** is not retained in the presence of circumfix **peN-... -an**, thus **pengertian** 'understanding'. It must therefore be regarded as a prefix.

In colloquial usage **meN-** may frequently be dropped, although consideration of this lies outside the scope of this work. It is just noted here that the tendency for **meN-** to be

dropped increases as the degree of informality of the speech situation increases.[5]

Apart from the above contexts, **meN-** is predictably present on active transitive verbs and is consequently omitted from illustrative examples in some grammar works. However, because its occurence is required in most natural contexts it is retained in examples here. That is, the examples are given in the active voice form of the verb.

Simple transitive verbs

1.187 Most simple transitive verbs have verb bases. They have no affixes other than one of the voice affixes **meN-** if active and **di-** if passive. There are a great many such verbs and the following list is far from exhaustive:

membuka open	**menutup** close
membangun build	**mendorong** push
memukul hit	**memotong** chop
membeli buy	**menjual** sell
menyewa rent	**melihat** see
mendengar hear	**menulis** write
membaca read	**membawa** carry
mengambil fetch	**mengangkat** lift
menolong help	**merasa** feel
mencuri steal	**memegang** hold

1.188 Some simple transitive verbs are based on nouns and mean 'use [base] on the object, apply [base] to the object'. Some of these can occur without the object being expressed, as described in section 3.21.

menyapu sweep
memotret photograph
memborgol handcuff
melap, mengelap wipe
menggergaji saw

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5 Anderson (1983: 6) notes that in a particular survey **meN-** was dropped in only 21% of cases when the addressee was a stranger, a situation in which language is likely to be more formal, but was dropped in up to 67% of cases when the addressee was a member of the speaker's family, a situation in which informal style is most likely.

mencat, mengecat paint
menyemir polish
mempel, mengepel mop
menambal, menampal patch, mend
menggunting cut (with scissors)
mengebor bore, drill

Transitive verbs with suffix -kan

1.189 All verbs with suffix **-kan** are transitive with the exception of **merupakan** (see 3.25). A number of different functions of **-kan** can be identified, although it is also possible to regard it as having two basic functions, that of marking the object as patient and that of marking the object as beneficiary. The different roles of participants in the action, such as patient and beneficiary, are discussed in section 3.17.

With all non-benefactive verbs **-kan** marks the object as the patient of the action, that is, the thing which is manipulated, acted on or moved by the action. With some verbs this participant can also be regarded as the instrument (see 1.205).

1.190 With many verb bases **-kan** has no other function than identifying the object as the patient of the action. Like **ber-** and **meN-** with intransitive verb bases it is simply required to produce a well-formed verb. Verbs in this group include:

melemparkan throw
mengerjakan do, work
merundingkan discuss
menyebutkan mention
membutuhkan need
menerangkan explain
menerapkan apply
membicarakan discuss
menyiarkan broadcast
menghiraukan pay attention to
menyumbangkan contribute
mengadakan do, carry out
membandingkan compare
menganjurkan urge, suggest
meninggalkan leave
menguraikan analyse
memikirkan think about
melakukan do, carry out
melaksanakan carry out
menghamburkan scatter
mengharapkan hope
mengenakan put on
menerjemahkan translate

With some bases, including some listed above, **-kan** is optional, as discussed in section 1.210. With some verbs **-kan** can be replaced by suffix **-i**; in this case the object is the recipient or location rather than the patient (see 1.212).

Causative -kan

1.191 With many verbs **-kan** has a causative function. The base may be an adjective, noun or verb.

1.192 If the base is an adjective the object is caused to have the quality or characteristic specified by the base. Thus **membersihkan** means 'cause object to be clean (**bersih**)':

Kamar ini sudah bersih.
This room is clean.
Siti sudah membersihkan kamar ini.
Siti has cleaned this room.

This form is very productive and can be based on most adjectives:

mengamankan pacify, render safe (**aman** peaceful, safe)
membersihkan clean (**bersih** clean)
melebarkan widen (**lebar** wide)
mengeringkan dry (**kering** dry)
membebaskan set free, release (**bebas** free)
mematikan extinguish (**mati** dead)
melembutkan soften (**lembut** soft)

A few adjectives do not form bases for such verbs. Thus **indah** 'beautiful' does not form the base of such a verb; **mengindahkan** 'pay attention to' has an unrelated verbal base.

1.193 With a few verbs the meaning is not predictable from the meaning of the adjective base:

membenarkan correct; confirm; approve (**benar** right, correct)
memberatkan make things difficult for (**berat** heavy)
menyulitkan cause difficulty for (**sulit** difficult)
menggelapkan embezzle (**gelap** dark)
meremehkan belittle; underestimate (**remeh** of no importance)
memuliakan honour deeply (**mulia** noble)

1.194 One subtype of causatives are based on adjectives indicating emotions and attitudes. These verbs indicate that the subject causes the object to experience the emotion or attitude expressed by the base. When the object is understood as applying to everyone in general it is typically omitted:

Film itu membosankan.
That movie is boring.
Pidatonya mengecewakan.
His speech was disappointing.
Madonna mengejutkan.
Madonna is startling.

Such verbs can function as ordinary transitives when the action applies to a particular object:

Film-film seperti itu membosankan saya.
Movies like that bore me.
Pidatonya mengecewakan para pemilih.
His speech disappointed the voters.
Madonna mengejutkan publik lagi.
Madonna has startled the public again.

When there is no object these verbs function like adjectives and are usually translated by adjectives, as in the above examples. Like adjectives they can take modifying adverbs, such as **kian** 'increasingly' and **sangat** 'very' (see 2.100):

Kondisinya kian memprihatinkan.
His condition is causing increasing concern.
Kabar itu sangat menyedihkan.
The news was very saddening.

Other verbs in this group include the following. Typical translations with and without an object are given:

memuaskan satisfy / satisfying
memalukan embarrass / embarrassing
mengejutkan startle / startling
menyenangkan please / pleasing
meyakinkan convince / convincing
menakutkan frighten / frightening
menyedihkan sadden / saddening
mencemaskan make apprehensive / cause apprehension
mengagumkan fill with admiration / admirable

With these verbs a phrase beginning with **untuk** or **bagi** (see 2.105) may occur instead of an object. In this case the verb behaves like an adjective and is translated as such:

Kelakuannya memalukan ibunya.
His behaviour embarrassed his mother.
Kelakuannya memalukan bagi ibunya.
His behaviour was embarrassing for his mother.

1.195 The verb **mengherankan** 'amazing' frequently occurs with **tidak**, meaning 'no wonder, it's not surprising':

Tidak mengherankan perusahaan itu terus berkembang dengan pesatnya.
It's not surprising that company continues to grow quickly.

1.196 A number of verbs whose bases do not indicate emotions or attitudes, including some with noun bases, function in the same way as the emotive verbs and can be grouped with them, such as:

merugikan inflict a loss on, damage / damaging, harmful (**rugi** suffer a loss)
menghebohkan cause a sensation, cause an uproar / sensational (**heboh** commotion, uproar)
mengesankan impress / impressive (**kesan** impression)
merepotkan cause difficulty for / causing difficulty, being a nuisance (**repot** busy, going to trouble)

Keputusan itu sangat merepotkan.
The decision caused a great deal of difficulty.

1.197 Some of the verbs in this group can also indicate that the subject undergoes the emotion expressed by the base. Thus, as well as meaning 'cause apprehension', **mencemaskan** can mean 'feel apprehension'. As well as meaning 'cause to be proud', **membanggakan** can mean 'be proud of', and **mengkhawatirkan** can mean 'worry about' as well as meaning 'cause worry':

Banyak pengamat mencemaskan bahwa Kim akan gagal.
Many observers are apprehensive that Kim will fail.
Pak Hasrun membanggakan anaknya.
Mr Hasrun is proud of his son.

Terus terang, kami mengkhawatirkan munculnya monopoli baru.
Frankly, we are worried about the appearance of new monopolies.

This function is not frequent with active verbs, although it is increasing in journalistic style. However, it occurs regularly if the verb is passive (see 3.26); that is, the agent experiences the emotion indicated by the base rather than causing someone else to experience it:

Mereka tak perlu kausedihkan. (cf. **menyedihkan** sadden)
There's no need for you to feel sorry for them.
Itu yang saya takutkan. (cf. **menakutkan** frighten)
That's what I'm afraid of.
Kelakuannya tidak usah dimalukan. (cf. **memalukan** embarrass)
There's no need to be embarrassed by his behaviour.
Anaknya selalu dirisaukannya. (cf. **merisaukan** cause (object) to worry; worry about)
She's always worried about her child.

1.198 When the base of a **-kan** verb is an intransitive verb the meaning is usually 'cause the object to perform [base]'. Thus **membangunkan** 'wake (someone) up' and **mendaratkan** 'land (something)' are based on the intransitive verbs **bangun** 'wake up' and **mendarat** 'land' respectively:

Siti bangun.
Siti woke up.
Ibu membangunkan Siti.
Mother woke Siti up.

Pesawat sudah mendarat.
The plane has landed.
Pilot sudah mendaratkan pesawat.
The pilot has landed the plane.

Other verbs in this group include the following. The corresponding intransitive verb is indicated in parentheses:

menjatuhkan drop (**jatuh** fall)
mengembalikan return, take back (**kembali** return, go back)

menaikkan raise (**naik** go up)
melahirkan give birth to (**lahir** be born)
mendirikan establish, set up (**berdiri** stand)
mengumpulkan collect (**berkumpul** collect, gather)
menghentikan stop (**berhenti** stop)
menyatukan unite (**bersatu** united)
menyingkirkan remove, eliminate (**menyingkir** step aside)
mendekatkan bring nearer (**mendekat** approach)
menyurukkan hide (**menyuruk** hide)

1.199 In three words the prefix **ber-** of the corresponding intransitive verb is retained when **meN-** is added. In two cases the base without **ber-** also occurs, the verbs having different meanings with and without **ber-**. All the transitive verbs except **melakukan** have causative meaning:

memberhentikan dismiss, sack (**berhenti** stop);
menghentikan stop
memberangkatkan dispatch (**berangkat** depart)
memberlakukan apply, put into effect (rules) (**berlaku** apply, be in effect); **melakukan** do, perform

In one word the prefix **meN-** of the corresponding intransitive verb is retained, there also being a form derived directly from the adjective base:

memeratakan distribute evenly (**merata** become even);
meratakan make level, smooth (**rata** level, smooth, even)

1.200 Causative verbs can be based on simple transitive verbs. These indicate that the subject causes another person to carry out the action on the object. The one who carries out the action is expressed by a prepositional phrase beginning with **kepada** or **pada**. Sometimes the causative verb has a different translation in English from the simple verb. Thus **meminjam** 'borrow' and **meminjamkan** 'lend (i.e. cause someone to borrow)':

Ali meminjam buku saya.
Ali borrowed my book.
Saya meminjamkan buku saya kepada Ali.
I lent my book to Ali.

For the majority of verbs in this group, however, the causative form has no direct translation into English. This requires a circumlocution in the English translation of the type 'have something done by someone', with a passive verb. Thus **memeriksakan** is translated 'have the object inspected/checked by someone' and **mencucikan** is translated 'have the object washed by someone':

Dokter memeriksa mata saya.
The doctor checked my eyes.
Saya memeriksakan mata ke dokter.
I had my eyes checked by the doctor.

Wanita itu mencuci pakaian saya.
That woman washes my clothes.
Saya mencucikan pakaian pada wanita itu.
I have my clothes washed by that woman.

With a number of verbs in this group a location is more likely to be expressed than an actor; in either case the preposition can be **pada**:

Di mana kau mencucikan pakaianmu?
Where do you have your clothes washed?
Tetangga saya selalu mereparasikan mobilnya pada bengkel ini.
My neighbour always has his car repaired at this garage.
(**mereparasi** repair)
Saya mau mencetakkan kartu nama saya di percetakan baru itu.
I want to get my calling cards printed at that new printery.
(**mencetak** print)

With some verbs an acceptable English translation is possible without a passive, even if there is no special equivalent to the **-kan** verb. In the following examples **membebankan** 'cause (object) to be borne' and **menontonkan** 'cause (object) to be viewed' can be translated 'impose a burden' and 'display, exhibit' respectively:

Polisi memikul beban ganti rugi.
The police bore the burden of compensation.
Hakim memikulkan beban ganti rugi pada polisi.
The judge imposed the burden of compensation on the police.

Pengunjung menonton hasil kemajuan yang terakhir.
The visitors viewed the results of the latest progress.
Mereka menontonkan hasil kemajuan yang terakhir.
They display the results of the latest progress.

Other verbs in this group include the following. A gloss with a passive verb is provided where this is the most natural translation:

meminumkan cause (object) to be drunk, give (object) to be drunk
menyewakan rent out, lease out
menjahitkan have (object) sewn
menggilingkan have (object) milled
mengoperasikan have (object) operated on
menimbangkan have (object) weighed
menambalkan have (object) patched
memuatkan load, cause (truck) to hold (**memuat**) a load
menyunatkan have (son) circumcised

1.201 Many **-kan** verbs are based on nouns. There are several functions of which only the commonest are listed in the following sections.

1.202 Some verbs mean 'put the object in [base], or take the object to [base]', where the base is a location. Thus **memakamkan** 'bury' means 'cause the object to be put in a **makam** (grave)'. Other examples:

memasarkan (take to) market (**pasar** market)
mengandangkan put in a stable/pen (**kandang** animal enclosure)
mementaskan stage (a play) (**pentas** stage)
meliburkan send on holiday (**libur** leave, holiday)
meminggirkan put to the edge (**pinggir** edge)
menggudangkan store, put in a store (**gudang** warehouse)
memenjarakan put in jail (**penjara** jail)
menyekolahkan send to school (**sekolah** school)

A number of verbs in this group have as their base directional **ke** 'to' and usually a locative noun, the most frequent being **mengemukakan** 'state, present, put forward', based on **ke muka** 'to the front':

Dia sudah mengemukakan pendapatnya mengenai pembredelan majalah itu.
He has presented his opinion on the banning of the magazine.

Others verbs in this group are:
mengetengahkan produce (evidence); set forth (**ke tengah** to the centre)
mengesampingkan put aside, ignore (**ke samping** to the side)
mengebumikan bury (**ke bumi** into the earth)
mengeluarkan put/take outside (**ke luar** to the outside)

1.203 Many **-kan** verbs with noun bases mean 'cause the object to be [base], treat the object as [base], give the object as [base]'. Thus **mengorbankan** means 'cause (object) to be a **korban** (sacrifice)', **mencalonkan** means 'cause (object) to be a **calon** (candidate)', **menghadiahkan** means 'give (object) as a **hadiah** (present)':

Orang Toraja mengorbankan banyak kerbau.
The Torajans sacrificed many buffaloes.
Dia mencalonkan adiknya.
He nominated his younger brother.
Gubernur menghadiahkan sebidang tanah kepada guru teladan.
The governor gave a plot of land (as a gift) to the model teacher.

Other verbs in this group include:
menceritakan tell, narrate (**cerita** story)
menasihatkan advise (**nasihat** advice)
menargetkan target, aim at (**target** target)
merencanakan plan (**rencana** plan)
mengabarkan report (**kabar** news)
mengkambinghitamkan make (object) a scapegoat (**kambing hitam** scapegoat)
menjanjikan promise (**janji** promise)
mendewakan idolise, treat (object) as a god (**dewa** god, deity)
mensukseskan make (object) a success (**sukses** success)

mengeramatkan consider (object) sacred (**keramat** sacred)
merahasiakan keep (object) a secret (**rahasia** secret)
mewakilkan appoint (object) as representative, delegate (**wakil** representative)

1.204 A number of other categories with small numbers of members can be identified but many **-kan** verbs with noun bases have unpredictable meanings or can only be categorised unconvincingly. Only the following loose grouping is noted in addition to the groups listed above.

A few verbs indicate that the subject acts as/is [base] with respect to the object, gives [base] to the object, or directs [base] at the object. Thus **membahayakan** 'be a danger (**bahaya**) to':

Letusan gunung itu membahayakan daerah sekitarnya.
The eruption of the volcano endangered (was a danger to) the surrounding region.

Some other members of this group are:
mencerminkan reflect (**cermin** mirror)
melambangkan symbolise (**lambang** symbol)
menyaksikan witness (**saksi** witness)
membuktikan prove (**bukti** proof)
mengecohkan deceive (**kecoh** fraud, deceit)

'Instrumental' -kan

1.205 With one group of verbs **-kan** is usually interpreted as marking the object as instrument. These verbs are based on simple transitive verbs with a change in structure such that the object of the simple verb becomes the location with the **-kan** verb and the instrument of the simple verb becomes the object with the **-kan** verb. This is shown by the following examples:

Dia memukul anjing dengan tongkat.
He hit the dog with a stick.
Dia memukulkan tongkat pada anjing.
He used the stick to beat the dog with.

Dia menikam perut harimau dengan belati.
He stabbed the tiger's belly with a knife.

Dia menikamkan belati ke perut harimau.
He thrust the knife into the tiger's belly.

As the above examples show, there is frequently no direct translation into English of **-kan** instrumental forms. Thus, **menikamkan belati** is translated 'thrust the knife', whereas it literally means 'stab-with a knife'. Sometimes, however, a more literal translation is natural in English. Thus 'tie' and 'wrap' can translate both the non-instrumental and the instrumental verbs in the following:

Dia mengikat anjing dengan tali.
He tied up the dog with a rope.
Dia mengikatkan tali ke anjing.
He tied the rope to the dog.

Perawat membalut lukanya dengan kain.
The nurse wrapped his wound with a bandage.
Perawat membalutkan kain ke lukanya.
The nurse wrapped the cloth around his wound.

Other examples:

Dia menyentuhkan gelas pada bibir temannya. (cf. **menyentuh bibirnya** touch his lips)
He touched the glass to his friend's lips.
Aku memelukkan tangan pada pinggangnya. (cf. **memeluk pinggangnya** embrace her waist)
I wrapped my arms around her waist.

Other verbs in this class, with typical instrumental objects shown in parentheses, include:

memotongkan (parang) chop with (a machete)
mencukurkan (pisau) shave with (a knife)
mengetokkan (palu) knock with (a hammer)
menembakkan (pistol) shoot with (a pistol)
mencambukkan (tali) whip with (a rope)
menutupkan (kain) cover with (a cloth)
menampalkan (plester) patch with (plaster)
mencengkamkan (kuku) grasp with (talons)

Although these verbs are usually regarded as marking the object as being the instrument with which the action is

performed, the object cannot always be so regarded, as shown by the following:

Dia memukulkan kepala ke dinding.
He beat his head against the wall.
Dia menampalkan gambar ke tembok.
He stuck pictures on the wall.

These examples show that what is basically important in these constructions is that the object is something which is handled, manipulated or moved (the patient - see 3.17); with the corresponding simple verbs the object is something at which the action is directed.[6]

Benefactive -kan

1.206 With a number of verbs **-kan** functions to indicate that the object is the beneficiary, the person for whose benefit the action is performed. This is sometimes called 'benefactive **-kan**'.

All verbs which can take benefactive **-kan** also occur as simple transitive verbs with an object which indicates the patient. In the benefactive construction there are two objects. The one immediately following the verb is the primary object, which identifies the beneficiary; the second is the secondary object, which indicates the patient (see section 3.20 for further discussion of primary and secondary objects). The examples below illustrate simple transitive verbs and their benefactive counterparts:

Pelayan mengambil segelas air.
The waiter fetched a glass of water.
Pelayan mengambilkan tamu segelas air.
The waiter fetched the guest a glass of water.

Dia menjahit rok.
She sewed a skirt.
Dia menjahitkan anaknya rok.
She sewed her child a skirt.

6 This was pointed out by Hein Steinhauer in a personal communication.

A number of benefactive verbs, such those in the above examples, have English equivalents which also allow the beneficiary to be expressed as the object. Some others are:

membuatkan make (for)
membelikan buy (for)
memilihkan choose (for)
memasakkan cook (for)
memesankan order (for)

For a number of other benefactive verbs the corresponding English verb does not allow a benefactive object, as with **membawakan** 'carry', whose English translation requires the beneficiary to be expressed by a phrase beginning with 'for':

Sopir membawakan saya koper yang berat.
The driver carried the heavy cases for me.

Some other verbs whose English translation does not allow a benefactive object are:

mencucikan wash (for)
membukakan open (for)
mengangkatkan lift (for)
mencarikan seek (for), look for (for)
menutupkan close/cover (for)

The verb **menuliskan** has a benefactive object. The English equivalent does not allow a benefactive object but instead allows an object indicating the person to whom the letter is sent, the recipient; in Indonesian this participant must be expressed by a phrase with **kepada** :

Dia menuliskan ayahnya surat.
He wrote a letter *for* his father.
Dia menulis surat kepada ayahnya.
He wrote his father a letter/He wrote a letter *to* his father.

All verbs which can take benefactive **-kan** can also occur without the suffix. However, if it does not occur the object must be the patient and the beneficiary must be expressed by a phrase beginning with **untuk, buat** or **bagi** 'for':

Pelayan mengambil segelas air untuk tamu.
The waiter fetched a glass of water for the guest.

When benefactive **-kan** does occur it signals that the action is done for someone's benefit even if that person is not mentioned. Thus:

Pelayan mengambilkan segelas air.
The waiter fetched (someone) a glass of water.

Such constructions are common in contexts where it is clear for whose benefit the action is performed. Perhaps because of such constructions forms with benefactive **-kan** and a beneficiary expressed in a prepositional phrase beginning with **untuk**, **buat** or **bagi** have developed in modern Indonesian[7]:

Pelayan mengambilkan segelas air untuk tamu.
The waiter fetched a glass of water for the guest.
Aku membelikan bermacam-macam perhiasan untuk isteriku.
I bought lots of jewelry for my wife.

1.207 Many verbs cannot take benefactive **-kan**. These includes all verbs with which **-kan** is required to produce a well-formed transitive verb, such as discussed in section 1.190, and to form causative verbs, discussed in 1.191ff. Verbs which describe actions which are not normally done for someone else, such as **makan** 'eat', also cannot take benefactive **-kan**.

With these verbs the beneficiary must be expressed in a beneficiary phrase (see 2.211). In the following example **tamu** 'guest' cannot occur as object because base **beres** 'in order' must take **-kan** to form a causative verb (see 1.192); therefore **-kan** cannot occur with this verb to indicate that the object is the beneficiary:

Ibu membereskan kamar untuk tamu.
Mother arranged the room for the guest.

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7 While such constructions are common in modern Indonesian and generally considered well formed, some people regard them as sub-standard, resulting either from analogy with constructions in which the beneficiary is not expressed, or confusion with constructions in which **-kan** has a non-benefactive function (see Samsuri 1981: 8), or from interference from Javanese (see Verhaar 1984: 36-7) Johns (1978: 226) states that **-kan** must drop in such constructions.

Suffix ***-kan*** *with two functions*

1.208 If a transitive verb can occur without a suffix the possibility exists for it to add **-kan** to indicate that someone else is caused to do the action (see 1.191ff) or to mark the object as instrument (see 1.205) or beneficiary (see 1.206). Thus **menjahit** 'sew' allows the addition of **-kan** to show that the subject gets someone else to perform the action or that the subject performs the action for someone else's benefit:

Saya menjahitkan kemeja ke tukang jahit.
I had my shirt sewn by that tailor.
Tukang jahit itu menjahitkan saya kemeja baru.
That tailor sewed me a new shirt.

Other verbs which allow the addition of **-kan** with these two functions include:

mencuci wash
menimbang weigh
memeriksa inspect, check
memikul bear, carry on the shoulder

The verb **menulis** 'write' allows **-kan** with both instrumental and benefactive meanings:

Dia menuliskan pensil tumpul.
He wrote with a blunt pen.
Dia menuliskan ayahnya surat.
He wrote a letter for his father.

Other verbs which allow **-kan** with these two functions include:

membelikan buy with (money); buy for (someone)
memotongkan chop with (something); chop for (someone)
membalutkan wrap with (something); wrap for (someone)

Other functions of ***-kan***

1.209 Sometimes meanings occur in addition to those noted above. Thus, in addition to meaning 'read for someone', **membacakan** can mean 'read aloud, recite': **membacakan puisi** 'recite poetry'. As well as meaning 'carry for someone' **membawakan** can mean 'convey, present, perform': **membawakan lagu** 'present a song'. As well as the

two meanings given above, **menuliskan** can mean 'write down': **menuliskan pikiran** 'write down (one's) thoughts'. Some other simple transitive verbs which can add **-kan** to form a verb whose meaning cannot be put into any of the above categories include:

melukis paint : **melukiskan** describe
mendapat get : **mendapatkan** discover, obtain
mendengar hear : **mendengarkan** listen to
menunjuk point to : **menunjukkan** indicate

Optional -kan

1.210 With a number of words **-kan** can be omitted without change of meaning. Most, though not all, such verbs are in the group in 1.190 above. Thus, both **mengantar** and **mengantarkan** mean 'accompany':

Utomo mengantar/mengantarkan ibunya ke pasar.
Utomo accompanied his mother to the market.

In the following examples optional **-kan** is indicated in parentheses:

melempar(kan) throw
menanam(kan) plant
menuang(kan) pour
memberi(kan) give
menyumbang(kan) contribute
mengantar(kan) accompany
mengirim(kan) send
merusak(kan) damage
menyebut(kan) mention
menitip(kan) entrust

In a few cases the optionality of **-kan** is different in active and passive voice. This is discussed in section 3.35.

Transitive verbs with suffix -i

1.211 Suffix **-i** has two major functions: to indicate that the object is the location of the action and to indicate repeated action. When suffix **-i** occurs with a base ending in **i** the sounds merge into one: **beri + -i → beri.**

Locative -i

1.212 The most common function of **-i** is to indicate that the object is the place where the action occurs or the person or place to which the action is directed. When the action is directed at a person that participant is called the recipient;

when it is located at or directed at a place that participant is the location. Both these participants are referred to as location if there is no need to distinguish them. These participant roles are further discussed in section 3.17.

1.213 Many **-i** locative verbs have noun bases. The largest group of these mean 'apply or give [base] to the object'. Thus, in the examples below **menandatangani** 'sign' means that the base **tandatangan** 'signature' is applied to the object **surat** 'letter' and **menghormati** 'honour' means that the base **hormat** 'honour' is applied to the object **orang tua** 'parents':

Dia menandatangani surat.
She signed the letter.
Kita harus menghormati orang tua kita.
We must honour/respect our parents.

Other verbs with noun bases and suffix **-i** with this function include:

mengilhami inspire
melukai wound
meracuni poison
memînyaki oil
mengakhiri end
membatasi limit
membanjiri flood
menasihati advise
memagari fence
merestui bless
mengisi fill
menghargai appreciate, respect
mengobati apply medicine to, treat
mewawancarai interview
menangani tackle, handle
mengampuni forgive
mempengaruhi influence
mengipasi fan
menggarami salt
meludahi spit on
menamai name
mewarnai colour
membohongi lie to
menilai evaluate

In a few cases the verb means that what is expressed by the base is removed from the object rather than applied to it. This is also generally the case with English equivalents of such verbs:

menyisiki scale (fish)
menguliti skin, peel
mengutui delouse, remove lice
menulangi remove bones
membului pluck, remove feathers

merumputi weed, remove weeds

In both English and Indonesian removal, rather than addition, is meant when removal is the action typically applied to the object. However, in specific contexts addition may be indicated by the same verbs. Thus, in the expression **menguliti buku** 'cover a book', the verb **menguliti** indicates the addition of something rather than the removal of something, as does **membului** in **membului anak panah** 'feather an arrow'.

1.214 Another major group of **-i** verbs with noun bases mean 'act as/be [base] with reference to object'. Thus in the examples below **Pak Irwan** acts as **sutradara** 'director' of the movie and **Agassi** is **juara** 'champion' of the tennis tournament:

Pak Irwan menyutradarai film itu.
Mr Irwan directed that movie.
Petenis Amerika Agassi menjuarai turnamen tenis itu.
The American tennis player Agassi won the tennis tournament.

Other verbs with noun bases and suffix **-i** with this function include:

mengetuai chair (meeting)
membintangi star (in movie)
mensponsori sponsor
mengepalai head, lead
mewakili represent
merajai rule (over)
membuntuti trail after
melandasi underly, be the base for
mengawali precede
memusuhi treat with hostility
mendalangi mastermind, manipulate

1.215 Suffix **-i** occurs with a limited number of adjective bases. Most of these bases also occur with causative **-kan** (see 1.192). The **-i** form usually indicates that something is applied to the object; it thus has a locative rather than causative meaning. So **memanasi (air)** 'heat (water) by

applying heat to it', **memanaskan (air)** 'heat (water), for instance, by moving it into the heat'; **mengasini (ikan)** 'salt (fish) by adding salt to it', **mengasinkan (ikan)** 'salt fish, for instance, by placing it in salt water'; **memerahi (bibir)** 'redden (lips) by applying something red to them', **memerahkan** 'redden by any means'; **mengeringi (sawah)** 'dry (rice field) by draining water from it', **mengeringkan** 'dry, for instance, by putting out in sun'.

Other verbs in this group include:
membasahi wet, dampen
memberati weigh down
memenuhi fill, fulfill
mencemari pollute, contaminate
menelanjangi uncover (secret); strip
menerangi light, illuminate
menghitami blacken
mengotori dirty, befoul
mengurangi reduce

1.216 A few **-i** verbs based on adjectives have somewhat different meanings, where the function of **-i** is not easily distinguished from that of **-kan**, including:
melengkapi complete
mendalami deepen
menghabisi finish off
mengurangi reduce

1.217 With bases which indicate approximation or relative position the **-i** verb means 'become the distance indicated by the base from the object'. Thus **menjauhi** 'avoid' means 'become **jauh** (far) from'. Bases are from a number of word classes, including some locative nouns (see 2.120); thus **membawahi** 'be underneath', from **bawah** 'underneath':
melalui pass (**lalu** past)
melampaui pass by, exceed (**lampau** past)
membawahi be underneath (**bawah** underneath)
mendampingi flank, stand beside (**damping** close)
mendekati approach (**dekat** near)
menengahi intervene; mediate (**tengah** middle)
menghampiri approach (**hampir** near)

menjauhi avoid (**jauh** far)

1.218 A large number of **-i** verbs have verbal bases and objects which indicate location. These verbs have intransitive counterparts, as in the following examples:

berbohong lie : **membohongi** lie to
berkerumun swarm : **mengerumuni** swarm over
datang come : **mendatangi** visit, come to
duduk sit : **menduduki** sit on, occupy
hadir be present : **menghadiri** attend
jatuh fall : **menjatuhi** fall on
melangkah step : **melangkahi** step over
melompat jump : **melompati** jump over
menangis weep : **menangisi** weep over
menikah get married : **menikahi** marry (someone)
percaya believe : **mempercayai** trust, believe
tidur sleep : **meniduri** sleep on

1.219 Intransitive verbs such as those in the list in section 1.218 may take a prepositional phrase to indicate place, means and so on (see 2.130), in which case the intransitive verb plus preposition usually means the same as, or something very similar to, the corresponding transitive verb:

Mereka hadir (di rapat itu).
They were present (at the meeting).
Mereka menghadiri rapat itu.
They attended that meeting.

Dia sudah menikah (dengan gadis itu).
He has married (that girl).
Dia sudah menikahi gadis itu.
He has married that girl.

For some of these intransitive verbs a prepositional phrase is obligatory, as with **tinggal di** 'dwell in', the intransitive verb and preposition corresponding in function to the **-i** verb. Among verbs typically behaving like this are the emotives, those which express emotions directed towards someone or something, such as **cinta** 'love' (prepositions following such intransitive verbs are variable, as discussed in section 2.130):

Siapa yang tinggal di rumah ini?
Siapa yang meninggali rumah ini?

Who lives in this house?
Pak Basri cinta akan istrinya.
Pak Basri mencintai istrinya.
Mr Basri loves his wife.

The following list exemplifies intransitive verbs which rarely occur without a following preposition, together with their transitive **-i** counterparts. Typical prepositions are also given. With a few verbs prepositions are optional, as indicated by parentheses:

benci akan : **membenci** hate
gemar akan : **menggemari** be fond of
masuk (ke dalam) enter : **memasuki** enter
sadar akan : **menyadari** be aware of
suka (akan) : **menyukai** like
tahu (akan) : **mengetahui** know
bertemu dengan : **menemui** meet
berkunjung ke : **mengunjungi** visit
berdiam di : **mendiami** dwell in
menyusup ke : **menyusupi** infiltrate

In a few cases there is some difference in meaning between the intransitive verb plus preposition and the corresponding **-i** verb:

marah pada angry at : **memarahi** scold
setuju dengan agree with (person or action) : **menyetujui** agree with, approve (action)

1.220 All the **-i** verbs with verbal bases discussed in section 1.219 relate to intransitive verbs with a following preposition. However, not all **-i** verbs with verbal bases correspond to intransitive verbs in this way. Relating to some **-i** verbs are intransitive verbs which are reflexive, such as **menyerah** 'surrender (oneself)', **menyerahi** 'hand over to, entrust to'. For others there is no corresponding intransitive verb. Some **-i** verbs relate to transitive simple verbs. Thus **menulis** 'write', **menulisi (kertas)** 'write on (paper)'. Among verbs which do not correspond in meaning to an intransitive verb plus preposition are:

melayani serve
mengulangi repeat

mempunyai have, possess
merintangi block, hamper
menaburi sprinkle
menyelidiki investigate
mengolesi smear
menutupi cover
menghalangi prevent, hamper

1.221 Another group of **-i** verbs are those sometimes called ditransitive verbs, which are further discussed in section 3.20. These verbs have a primary object and a secondary object. With ditransitive **-i** verbs the primary object represents the recipient of the action, that is, the one at whom the action is directed, and the secondary object represents the patient. This group is exemplified by **mengirimi** 'send to' and **menyerahi** 'hand over to':

Ayah mengirimi saya uang.
Father sent me money.
Kepala kantor menyerahi kami tugas yang berat.
The office head assigned us a heavy task.

Almost all these verbs have counterparts with suffix **-kan**, with which the object represents the patient (see 1.190ff). A number of verbs with noun bases are also ditransitive and can be placed in this group, such as **menghadiahi** 'give to (object) as a **hadiah** (gift)'. Some verbs in this group are given below, along with typical primary and secondary objects:

memberi (dia uang) give (him money)
menawari (dia pekerjaan) offer (him a job)
menamai (dia Ali) name (him Ali)
menyuguhi (tamu minuman) offer (the guests a drink)
melimpahi (dia harta) give (him wealth) in abundance
menghadiahi (dia buku) give (him a book) as a gift
menganugerahi (mereka seorang putri) bless (them with a daughter)
meminjami (dia buku) lend (him a book)
menyodori (dia buku) hand (him a book)
mencurahi (dia kekayaan) bestow upon (him wealth)

1.222 There are many other **-i** verbs which are not ditransitive but which nevertheless have counterparts with

-kan. The participant which is object with the **-kan** verb occurs in a **dengan** phrase with the **-i** verb. (The relationship between **-i** and **-kan** verbs is further discussed in 1.229ff.) The following exemplify such **-i** verbs in sentences:

Dia menanami sawahnya dengan padi.
He planted his field with rice.
Para demonstran melempari wartawan dengan batu.
The demonstrators pelted the journalists with stones.

The prepositional phrase in such constructions is optional:

Dia menanami sawahnya.
He planted his field.

Some other verbs in this group are given below, with typical objects and **dengan** phrases:

menyirami (bunga dengan air) spray (flowers with water)
mengolesi (badan dengan minyak) smear (body with oil)
melayani (tamu dengan makanan) serve (guest with food)
memuati (truk dengan batu bara) load (truck with coal)
membebani (orang dengan tugas) burden (person with duty)
menaburi (makanan dengan garam) sprinkle (food with salt)
menghiasi (kamar dengan mawar) decorate (room with roses)
membanjiri (negeri itu dengan uang) flood (the country with money)
menutupi (mata dengan tangan) cover (eyes with hand)
menulisi (kertas dengan pena) write on (paper with pen)

English verbs translating **-i** locative verbs usually allow the same object, as in the above examples, although with a few verbs the Indonesian must be paraphrased or a different verb chosen. For instance, **melampiri** 'enclose' can take **surat** 'letter' as object where the corresponding English verb cannot; the English verb 'enclose' requires a patient as object and thus is actually a translation of the corresponding **-kan** verb:

Ayah melampiri surat dengan kwitansi.
Father enclosed a receipt in the letter.

Other verbs which must be translated into English by a paraphrase include:

menghujani (musuh dengan bom) rain on (enemy with bombs)
menuangi (cangkir dengan teh) pour into (cup with tea)

The preposition **dengan** 'with' can be omitted under certain circumstances in a passive construction (see 3.37).

Verbs with and without -i

1.223 Some verbs occur in simple transitive form or with suffix **-i** with different meanings. Besides those differences which can be accounted for in terms of the regular functions of **-i**, such as **menulis** 'write', **menulisi** 'write on', are differences in meaning which are restricted to particular verbs and are usually unpredictable, such as:

meliput cover an event (of a journalist) : **meliputi** cover
mendapat get : **mendapati** find
menunggu wait (for) : **menunggui** watch over
mengenal know : **mengenali** recognise, identify
mengajar teach : **mengajari** teach, train, coach
mengurus arrange, organise : **mengurusi** look after

Optional -i

1.224 With a number of words locative **-i** can be omitted without change of meaning. Thus both **menyeberang** and **menyeberangi** mean 'cross over':

Kita bisa menyeberang/menyeberangi jalan di sini.
We can cross the road here.

In the following examples optional **-i** is indicated in parentheses:

menyiram(i) spray
menghias(i) decorate
mengikut(i) follow, obey
menerobos(i) break through
menggunjing(i) speak badly of
mendamprat(i) abuse, insult
mengiring(i) accompany
menurut(i) follow
menyuluh(i) light, illuminate

mencicip(i) nibble

There is a considerable amount of variation in what different speakers regard as acceptable. Thus some allow **mengirim** instead of **mengirimi** 'send (someone something)', while others regard **-i** as obligatory.[8] Also, the frequency with which **-i** occurs when it is optional varies from word to word. For some speakers addition of **-i** to some words changes their meaning while for others the suffix is optional and does not change the meaning. Thus, some people distinguish **mengajar (mereka)** 'teach (them)' and **mengajari (mereka)** 'train (them)'; others treat this as simply a case of optional **-i**. Some people distinguish intransitive **menyeberang** 'cross over' and transitive **menyeberangi**, although other Indonesians treat the **-i** as optional before an object (but obligatorily absent if there is no object - see 3.21).

Locative verbs without -i

1.225 A number of verbs occur as simple transitives where **-i** might be expected because the object is locative. Thus **menyumbang** has a locative object, this participant being marked by **kepada** with the corresponding **-kan** verb:

Kami menyumbang mereka dengan uang.
We support them with money.
Kami menyumbangkan uang kepada mereka.
We contribute money to them.

Some verbs in this group have **-kan** counterparts with 'instrumental' meaning (see 1.205). Some others have noun bases (see 1.188). Among these verbs are:

mengetuk (pintu) knock on (door)
menyemprot spray
menambah (pengetahuan) add to (knowledge)
menyemir polish
mengingat remember
memborgol handcuff

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8 Thus Dardjowidjojo (1978: 352) allows both **Saya mengirimi mereka uang saku** and **Saya mengirim mereka uang saku** 'I send them pocket money', while Johns (1978: 232) treats **-i** as obligatory in **Paman mengirimi saya uang tiap bulan** 'Uncle sent me some money every month'.

memberitahu tell
menginjak tread on

A few verbs which have locative objects and intransitive verb plus preposition counterparts (see 1.219) do not have suffix **-i**. These include **mengenal** 'know' and **mengingat** 'remember':

Saya kenal/ingat akan dia.
Saya mengenal/mengingat dia.
I know/remember him.

Repetitive -i

1.226 Suffix **-i** can be added to a number of simple transitive verbs to indicate that the action is performed more than once. The precise meaning of **-i** depends on the context and the particular verb base. It may indicate action done separately to a number of objects or repeated action on the one object, either by one actor or more. The difference is shown by the following examples:

Dia mencium pacarnya.
He kissed his girl friend.
Dia menciumi pacarnya.
He kissed his girl friend repeatedly/a number of times.

Kami akan menjemput mereka.
We will collect them.
Kami akan menjemputi mereka.
We will collect them (in more than one trip).

Mereka menebang pohon di depan rumahnya.
They chopped down the tree in front of their house.
Mereka menebangi pohon di sekitar rumahnya.
They chopped down the trees around their house.

With the following examples the gloss does not distinguish the different possibilities:

mengambili fetch repeatedly
memukuli hit repeatedly
mengangkati lift repeatedly
menggigiti bite repeatedly
menggaruki scratch repeatedly
membungkusi wrap (many things)

menembaki shoot repeatedly
menjuali sell off, sell (many things)
menutupi shut (many things)

1.227 With some verbs **-i** indicates intensity or thoroughness. Thus **memandang** means 'look at', while **memandangi** means 'gaze at':

Tiap pasang mata memandangi kami.
Each pair of eyes gazed at us.

Other verbs indicating intensity include:
membakari burn up completely
melihati scrutinise, look at intently
memegangi grip, hold tightly
memeriksai inspect carefully

With a few verbs, such as **memakani** 'eat up', the meanings of repetition and thoroughness are not clearly distinguished:

Burung itu memakani padi.
The birds ate up the rice.

With several verbs **-i** incorporates both a locative object and repeated or intensive action. Thus **melempari** means 'throw (many things) at', a meaning also conveyed by the English translation 'pelt' (as in the example in section 1.222). The verb **menanyai** corresponds to the intransitive verb plus preposition **bertanya kepada** 'ask' but for most people it also suggests intensity or thoroughness, thus meaning 'question, interrogate', rather than just 'ask':

Polisi menanyai tersangka.
The police interrogated the suspect.

1.228 Many verbs cannot take repetitive **-i**. This includes all verbs which do not have a simple transitive form but with which **-i** or **-kan** is required to produce a well-formed transitive verb. With such verbs repetition must be indicated by an adjunct, such as **berkali-kali** 'repeatedly' or **berulang-ulang** 'over and over'. Such adjuncts can also replace repetitive **-i**:

Dia mencium pacarnya berkali-kali.
He kissed his girlfriend again and again/repeatedly.

*Suffixes **-kan** and **-i** compared*

1.229 Many verbs can take both **-kan** and **-i**, usually with a clear distinction in meaning, **-kan** marking the object as patient and **-i** marking it as location or recipient (see 3.17). The **-i** verb may be ditransitive (see 1.221) or have only a single object (see 1.222):

Mereka menawarkan bantuan kepada saya.
They offered help to me.
Mereka menawari saya bantuan.
They offered me help.

Buruh itu memuatkan beras ke kapal.
The workers loaded the rice onto the ship.
Buruh itu memuati kapal dengan beras.
The workers loaded the ship with rice.

Sopir memasukkan mobil ke dalam garasi.
The driver put the car into the garage.
Mobil memasuki garasi.
The car entered the garage.

Not all verbs with verbal bases take both suffixes. Many verbs, including **menyewakan** 'lend', have no corresponding **-i** forms:

Parno menyewakan rumahnya kepada keluarga Sugito.
Parno rented his house to the Sugito family.

There is no **-kan** form corresponding to a number of **-i** verbs, such as **menghiasi** 'decorate':

Dia menghiasi kamarnya dengan bunga.
She decorated her room with flowers.

1.230 With a number of words the distinction between **-kan** and **-i** is blurred in common usage.

In some cases both **-i** and **-kan** occur with the same meaning. With some there is a recipient or locative object, while with others the object is the patient:

menamai, menamakan name
mengenai, mengenakan subject to
mengingini, menginginkan desire
menyakiti, menyakitkan hurt

menyembahyangi, menyembahyangkan pray over, conduct service for
mendoai, mendoakan pray for
menghamili, menghamilkan make pregnant

Mereka menamai/menamakan anaknya Ali.
They named their child Ali.
Goenawan dikenai/dikenakan skorsing dua tahun.
Goenawan was subjected to a two year disqualification.

With these words both forms are generally acceptable. Nevertheless, there is a considerable amount of confusion in the minds of many people as to which suffix is appropriate with certain verbs. Typical is the use of **menugaskan** instead of **menugasi** 'assign', literally 'give **tugas** (duty/assignment) to'. While purists insist on the **-i** form, use of **-kan** is common, even among educated people: [9]

Mereka menugasi/(menugaskan) dia mengadakan observasi.
They assigned him to carry out observations.

In the active, but not in passive voice, **memberikan** commonly occurs with a recipient object, although in this case also purists regard the **-kan** form as ungrammatical:

Ibu memberi/(memberikan) anaknya baju baru.
Mother gave her son a new shirt.

In the case of **memberikan** and **mengenakan**, referred to above, purists accept only a patient object:

Ibu memberikan baju baru kepada anaknya.
Mother gave a new shirt to her son.
Skorsing dua tahun dikenakan pada Goenawan.
A disqualification of two years was applied to Goenawan.

1.231 Some **-kan** verbs have a recipient or locative object. Reference is made in section 1.197 to **-kan** verbs having a locative meaning with emotive adjective bases, such as

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9 This has prompted a number of grammarians, such as Badudu (1983: 45-6), to discuss the 'correct' usage of **menugasi** and **menugaskan**, the latter being acceptable only with an object identifying the patient.

mencemaskan 'be apprehensive about'. In such cases an intransitive emotive verb plus preposition (see 1.219) corresponds to a **-kan** transitive verb rather than an **-i** verb: **bangga akan, membanggakan** 'be proud of'.

1.232 Occurrence of **-i** where **-kan** would be expected is rarer (see also 1.216). The **-i** form **mengantongi (uang)** 'pocket (money)' has a patient object (compare **memenjarakan (penjahat)** 'jail (a criminal)'). Many people use **menakut-nakuti (anak)** (with obligatory reduplication) 'frighten (a child)' instead of **menakutkan**, although others also recognise **menakuti** 'fear' with a locative object.

1.233 With some verbs acceptability of forms differs between active and passive constructions. This is discussed in section 3.35.

*Transitive verbs with prefix **per-***

1.234 Prefix **per-** can occur alone or in combination with **-kan** and **-i**. Examples are given in the active voice, with prefixation **memper-**. Verbs formed with the combination of **per-** and **-kan** are discussed in sections 1.239–44; those formed with **per-** and **-i** are discussed in section 1.245.

1.235 **Per-** can occur with adjective bases to form causative verbs. It is sometimes stated that such verbs differ from causatives with **-kan** (see 1.192) in that with **-kan** the object is caused to take on a characteristic it did not previously have, while with **per-** the object already has the characteristic and is caused to have it in greater degree. Thus from **besar** 'big' is derived **membesarkan** 'make big something which is not big' and **memperbesar** 'make bigger something which is already big'. Other people recognise no contrast between the two affixes, regarding **per-** verbs simply as indicating that the object is caused to have the characteristic of the base, whether it already had the characteristic to some degree or not. It is probable there is considerable variation in usage between different speakers, with many people making no distinction between the functions of the two affixes. Causative verbs with **per-** include:

memperkecil reduce, make small (**kecil** small)

mempercepat speed up (**cepat** fast)
memperkuat strengthen (**kuat** strong)
mempersempit make narrow (**sempit** narrow)
memperpanjang extend, make longer (**panjang** long)
mempermudah make easy (**mudah** easy)
memperkaya enrich (**kaya** rich)
memperlemah weaken (**lemah** weak)

Affixes **per-** and **-kan** cannot always substitute for each other with adjective bases. Thus **memperpanjang** 'lengthen/extend (the time of the object)', as in **memperpanjang visa** 'extend a visa' and **memperdalam** 'deepen', as in **memperdalam pengetahuan** 'deepen knowledge', cannot be replaced by **memanjangkan** 'lengthen' and **mendalamkan** 'deepen' respectively, which apply only to physical objects.

With some bases one affix or the other does not occur or is very infrequent. Thus **memperkaya** 'enrich' is common while it is doubtful if many people use **mengayakan**. Only **memperindah** means 'beautify', **mengindahkan**, meaning 'pay attention to', having a different base.[10] While **per-** is less frequent with most bases than **-kan** it is nevertheless productive and can occur with new adjectives, such as **canggih** 'sophisticated', a word which was introduced in the mid 1980s:

Negara-negara Asia mencoba mempercanggih kemampuan militernya.
The Asian countries are trying to make their military capability (more) sophisticated.

To produce causative verbs **per-** occurs only with adjective bases, not with intransitive verb bases. Thus there is no **per-** form corresponding to **-kan** causatives such as **membangunkan** 'wake (someone) up' and **memandikan** 'bath (someone)'.

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10 There is disagreement as to the acceptability of some forms. Thus *Kamus Besar Bahasa Indonesia* (1991) gives **mencantikkan** 'make beautiful', whereas Dardjowidjojo (1983: 261) rules this out, allowing only **mempercantik**.

1.236 A small number of **per-** verbs are based on nouns and mean 'treat the object as [base]' or 'take the object as [base]'. Thus **memperistri** 'take as wife, marry':

Saya tidak dapat memperistri gadis seperti dia.
I can't marry a girl like her.

Other verbs in this group include:

memperbudak enslave; treat like a slave
mempersuami take as husband, marry
memperalat make use of (someone); use as an instrument
mempertuan treat as (one's) master
memperkuda exploit, work (object) like a horse
memperdewa deify, treat like a god, idolise
memperadik regard as a younger sibling

1.237 **Per-** also occurs with cardinal numbers from 'two' to 'four' to derive verbs meaning 'cause to be so many parts, divide into so many parts':

memperdua divide into two parts
mempertiga divide into three parts
memperempat divide into four parts

Belonging to this group is **memperbanyak** 'multiply, increase the number of':

Mereka memperbanyak senjatanya.
They increased the number of their weapons.

1.238 Two forms occur with verb bases:

memperoleh get, obtain
memperbuat do

*Transitive verbs with affixation **per-...-kan***

1.239 This affixation occurs with some adjective bases to produce causative verbs:

mempermalukan shame, embarrass
memperhebatkan intensify
memperbesarkan enlarge

Where it occurs with adjective bases **per-...-kan** has the same meaning as **per-** (see 1.235). Thus **memperhebatkan** could be replaced by **memperhebat** in the following sentence:

Serikat buruh memutuskan untuk memperhebatkan kampanye.
The trade union has decided to intensify its campaign.

These verbs probably result from confusion between **per-** and **-kan** forms and are not accepted by all speakers. Some, such as **mempermalukan**, have wide acceptability and tend to be included in dictionaries, while others, such as **memperbesarkan**, tend to be excluded from dictionaries.

1.240 A very limited number of **per-...-kan** verbs occur with noun bases. Some of these are synonymous with **memper-** forms. Thus **memperdewa**, **memperdewakan** 'deify; idolise'. There is uncertainty about the meaning of two forms; some people treat **memperistrikan** and **mempersuamikan** as meaning the same as **memperistri** and **mempersuami** respectively (see 1.236), while others make a distinction, **memperistri/suamikan** meaning 'marry off (son/daughter), cause (son/daughter) to take a spouse'.[11] The verb **mempermadukan** 'take a second wife, provide (wife) with a co-wife', has no corresponding form without **-kan**.

Also in this group are the following:
memperdebatkan debate (over)
mempersoalkan dispute, question
mempermasalahkan dispute, question
mempersengketakan dispute, quarrel over

1.241 With verb bases **per-...-kan** has several functions. With some bases it simply identifies the object as the patient of the action, being required with those bases to produce well-formed verbs. With some verbs **per-** is optional; the corresponding **-kan** verb has the same meaning. In such cases both forms are given in the following examples:

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11 Uncertainty as to the meanings of these forms is shown, for instance, by the two editions of *Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia*. The first edition (1988. 115) gives **memperistrikan** and **mempersuamikan** different meanings from **memperistri** and **mempersuami** respectively. The second edition (1993: 138) gives the forms with and without **-kan** as having the same meanings, the suffix simply being optional.

memperebutkan struggle over
mempertimbangkan weigh up, consider
memperhitungkan calculate, estimate
mempermainkan make fun of
mempertahankan maintain, defend
memperjuangkan struggle for
mempercakapkan talk about
memperlakukan treat
mempertunjukkan present, perform
memperbandingkan/membandingkan compare
mempersilakan/menyilakan invite (to do something)
memperdagangkan/mendagangkan deal in, trade in
mempertontonkan/menontonkan exhibit

1.242 Another group of **per-...-kan** verbs indicate that the object is caused to perform the action of the corresponding intransitive verb. Thus **mempersatukan** 'unite' means 'cause the object to unite (**bersatu**)'. Other verbs in this group are better paraphrased 'regard the object as [base], treat the object as [base]'. With a number of these verbs also **per-** is optional. Corresponding intransitive verbs are given in parentheses:

mempekerjakan employ (**bekerja** work)
mempertemukan unite (**bertemu** meet)
mempermandikan baptise (**mandi** bath)
mempergunakan/menggunakan use (**berguna** useful)
mempersiapkan/menyiapkan prepare (**bersiap** get ready)
memperbedakan/membedakan distinguish (**berbeda** be different)
mempersatukan/menyatukan unite (**bersatu** be united)

1.243 A very small group of **per-** verbs are based on simple transitive verbs. These indicate that the subject causes another person to carry out the action. The one who carries out the action is expressed in a phrase beginning with **kepada/pada**. Thus **melihat** 'see', **memperlihatkan** 'cause (someone) to see; show':

Harun melihat gambar-gambar saya.
Harun saw my drawings.
Saya memperlihatkan gambar-gambar saya kepada Harun.
I showed my drawings to Harun.

A larger group of verbs with this function have only suffix **-kan**, as discussed in section 1.200, while with one verb in this group **per-** is optional:

memperdengarkan present (music), let (music) be heard (**mendengar** hear)
memperkenalkan/mengenalkan introduce (**mengenal** know)

1.244 As examples in sections 1.241–3 show, some **per-...-kan** verbs are synonymous with **-kan** verbs. This is not always the case; some **per-...-kan** verbs have no corresponding **-kan** forms. In other cases both forms occur but with different meanings, as with the following:

mendengarkan listen to : **memperdengarkan** perform, let (object) be heard
mengerjakan do, perform : **mempekerjakan** employ
menunjukkan indicate : **mempertunjukkan** perform, display
melakukan do, carry out : **memperlakukan** treat
memandikan bath : **mempermandikan** baptise
mengatakan say : **memperkatakan** talk about, deliberate over
menanyakan ask about : **mempertanyakan** question

*Transitive verbs with affixation **per-...-i***

1.245 This affixation occurs with only a limited number of verbs; it is not productive. Sometimes **per-** can be deleted, as indicated in the list below. Two verbs are based on adjectives and have a causative meaning. The others are based on verbs; with these **per-...-i** functions like **-i**:

memperbaiki fix, repair
memperba(ha)rui/memba(ha)rui renew, repair
mempelajari study
memperlengkapi/melengkapi equip; complement
mempersenjatai arm
memperingati commemorate
memperlindungi/melindungi protect, shelter

In the case of one verb the **per-** form contrasts with the non-**per-** form: **mempelajari** 'study', **mengajari** 'teach, train'.

Secondary verbs

1.246 Among secondary verbal forms there is considerable variation in function. In most cases primary affixation is deleted. Secondary verbal forms are base-**meN**-base form (such as **pukul-memukul**), and verbs with affixation **ber-...-an, ber-...-kan, ter-, ke-...-an** and **ke-**.

Base-meN-base verbs

1.247 This derivation, as in **pukul-memukul**, occurs only with certain basic transitive verbs. It consists of the verb base followed by the active voice form of the verb. There are two groups of verbs with this structure, one group indicating reciprocal action and one group indicating 'anything to do with [base]'.

Reciprocal base-meN-base verbs

1.248 The verb indicates that two people do the same thing to each other. Corresponding verbs in English have 'each other' as object:

Mereka pukul-memukul.
They hit each other.
Kedua keluarga itu selalu tolong-menolong.
Those two families are always helping each other.

As the above examples show, these verbs occur in intransitive constructions, the subject expressing both actor and patient of the corresponding basic verb. They therefore have no passive transformations.

If a suffix occurs with the basic verb this is usually retained, although verbs with **-kan** rarely enter this construction:

peluk-memeluk embrace each other
telpon-menelpon telephone each other
tikam-menikam stab each other
harga-menghargai respect each other
cinta-mencintai love each other
jauh-menjauhi avoid each other
maaf-memaafkan forgive each other

In a few cases suffix **-i** of the corresponding basic verb is deleted:

surat-menyurat correspond, write to each other
(**menyurati** write to)
kunjung-mengunjung visit each other (**mengunjungi** visit)

While reciprocal verbs can be based on only a limited number of basic transitive verbs, forms like **telpon-menelpon** 'telephone each other' show that there is some degree of productivity.

1.249 With some verbs the two participants stand not as actor and patient but as actor and recipient (see 3.17). These verbs have a complement (see 3.65), corresponding to the object of the related basic verb. The reciprocal participants can both be expressed by the subject. Sometimes one participant can alternatively be expressed by a prepositional phrase beginning with **dengan** 'with':

Yanti dan Lia tukar-menukar hadiah Natal.
Yanti and Lia exchanged Christmas presents.
Yanti tukar-menukar hadiah Natal dengan Lia.
Yanti exchanges Christmas presents with Lia.

Other verbs in this group are:

tawar-menawar bargain (with someone)
pinjam-meminjam borrow (from each other)

1.250 The only verb in this group which does not have a corresponding basic transitive form is **bahu-membahu** 'work shoulder-to-shoulder':

Dia bahu-membahu dengan rekannya.
He worked shoulder-to-shoulder with his colleagues.

1.251 For the majority of basic verbs no reciprocal form occurs. With these reciprocity can be indicated by **saling** (see 2.160), which can also occur instead of a reciprocal form:

Mereka kunjung-mengunjung.
Mereka saling mengunjungi.
They visit each other.

The two forms are sometimes redundantly combined:

Mereka saling kunjung-mengunjung.
They visit each other.

Other reciprocal verbs have affixation **ber-** (see 1.173) or **ber-...-an** (see 1.255).

Verbs meaning 'everything to do with'

1.252 Based on basic transitive verbs which do not refer to activities which can normally be reciprocal, because the object is not typically a person, this form means 'everything/anything to do with [base], affairs relating to [base]'. Thus **jahit-menjahit** 'anything to do with sewing' (**menjahit** 'sew'), **angkat-mengangkat** 'anything to do with lifting' (**mengangkat** 'lift'), **masak-memasak** 'everything to do with cooking, the art of cooking' (**memasak** 'cook'):

Kalau soal jahit-menjahit, jangan berikan kepada saya.
If it's anything to do with sewing don't give it to me.
Urusan angkat-mengangkat serahkan kepada kami.
Any lifting there is to do leave to us.
Dia banyak tahu tentang masak-memasak.
She knows a great deal about the art of cooking.[12]

This function is quite productive; other forms include:

tari-menari anything to do with dancing
karang-mengarang anything to do with writing
sulam-menyulam anything to do with embroidery
lukis-melukis anything to do with painting
ketik-mengetik anything to do with typing

These forms are based only on basic simple transitive verbs. As in the above examples, the form is always nominalised (see 3.130), occurring either as the head of a noun phrase or modifying another noun.

1.253 A unique form is **tidak tahu-menahu** 'know absolutely nothing about'. This is not nominalised, occurring as the predicate of a verbal clause, and containing the form **menahu**, which does not otherwise occur:

Yudi tak tahu-menahu pembunuhan gadis itu.
Yudi knows absolutely nothing about the murder of that girl.

12 These examples are based on Johns (1981: 86).

*Verbs with **ber-...-an***

1.254 There are two groups of verbs with this affixation, one group indicating reciprocal action and one group indicating random action.

*Reciprocal **ber-...-an** verbs*

1.255 These verbs indicate that two people do the same thing to each other, such as **bersalaman** 'greet each other by shaking hands', or that two people or things stand in the same relationship to each other, such as **berdekatan** 'be near each other':

Mereka bersalaman waktu bertemu.
They shook hands when they met.
Rumah kami berdekatan.
Our houses are near each other.

With many verbs the two participants can be expressed in the same phrase, as above, or one can be expressed in a phrase beginning with **dengan**:

Kapal tangki dan kapal barang bertabrakan.
The tanker and the cargo ship collided (with each other).
Kapal tangki bertabrakan dengan kapal barang.
The tanker collided with the cargo ship.

1.256 Verbs with affixation **ber-...-an** which indicate reciprocal action are based on basic transitive verbs. The group includes:

berdesakan push and jostle
berpandangan gaze at each other
bertabrakan collide with each other
berbalasan reply to each other
bersahutan answer back and forth

Most of these verbs can occur with reduplicated base, such as **berkejar-kejaran** 'chase each other' (**mengejar** 'chase'):

Anak-anak berkejar-kejaran di halaman.
The children are chasing each other in the yard.

A few are always reduplicated in the usage of some people. Other verbs which frequently occur with reduplicated base are:

berpukul-pukulan hit each other
bercinta-cintaan love each other
berpeluk-pelukan embrace each other
berdesak-desakan pushing and shoving

1.257 Several of these verbs can alternatively be expressed as base combined with **meN-** form (see 1.248):
berpukul-pukulan, pukul-memukul hit each other
berpeluk-pelukan, peluk-memeluk embrace each other
bersaingan, saing-menyaingi compete with each other
bertolong-tolongan, tolong-menolong help each other

However, neither group is very productive and generally there is only one possible secondary formation relating to a particular basic verb. Many verbs have no reciprocal form, reciprocity being expressed by **saling**, as mentioned in 1.251 and 2.160.

1.258 With a few verbs the two participants stand as actor and recipient. With these verbs a complement (see 3.65) occurs, corresponding to an object with the related basic verbs:
Mereka berkirim-kiriman surat.
They send letters to each other.
Mereka berpegangan tangan.
They were holding hands.
Mereka bertukaran cincin.
They exchanged rings.

1.259 Of verbs which indicate that two people or things stand in the same relationship, a spatial relationship is usually referred to:
berhadapan face each other
berjauhan be far from each other
berseberangan be across from each other
berdampingan be side by side
berbelakangan be back to back
berbatasan border on each other

1.260 A few verbs refer to personal relationship:
bermusuhan be enemies with each other

berpacaran be boyfriend and girlfriend to each other

These are similar to reciprocal **ber-** verbs (see section 1.173). However, with these verbs the base cannot be regarded as a noun derived with **-an** as no such form exists. In one case both **ber-** and **ber-...-an** forms occur: **bermusuh**, **bermusuhan** 'be enemies (with each other)'.

*Random action **ber-...-an** verbs*

1.261 These forms are related to basic intransitive verbs. The subject refers to multiple participants, who carry out the action in a random, uncoordinated manner. Thus **berdesingan** means 'whizzing in all directions' (**mendesing** 'make whizzing sound'), **beterjunan** means 'jump down (of many people acting in an uncoordinated manner)' (**terjun** 'jump down'):

Peluru berdesingan.
Bullets were whizzing about in all directions.
Ketika kapal itu terbakar penumpang beterjunan ke laut.
When the ship caught fire the passengers jumped into the sea.

Since plurality of the subject is implicit it is rarely indicated overtly; however, it can be expressed:

Para saksi mata mulai bermatian.
The eye witnesses were beginning to die off.

Other verbs in this group include:

berguguran fall (of leaves etc.)
berdatangan come, arrive (from all directions)
beterbangan fly (in all directions)
bergantungan hang (all over the place)
berlarian running (in all directions)
bermunculan turn up (from all directions)

A few verbs do not imply a plural actor. The verb **berjualan** 'sell for a living' (**menjual** 'sell') can have a single actor and can also occur with a complement, having the same meaning as **berjual** (see 3.64):

Dia berjualan kuda.

He sells horses for a living.

The verb **bepergian** simply means 'go on a trip, travel' (**pergi** 'go'):

Bepergianlah dengan kereta api!
Travel by train!

The verb **berkeliaran** 'wander about' refers to random, undirected action but can have a single actor. The verb **berserakan** 'scattered about' refers to things in a random state. These two verbs have no corresponding basic verbal forms:

Dia selalu berkeliaran di sini.
He is always wandering about here.
Tiang-tiang bambu berserakan.
Bamboo posts were scattered about.

*Verbs with affixation **ber-...-kan***

1.262 Most of these verbs have noun bases. The construction contains a noun complement (see 3.65) and has the general meaning 'subject has complement as [base]'. Thus, **berdasarkan** 'be based on' literally means 'have complement as a **dasar** (basis, base)'; the first sentence below literally means 'The philosophy of Indonesia has Pancasila as a base'. The word **bersenjatakan** 'be armed with' literally means 'have complement as a **senjata** (weapon)'; the second sentence below literally means 'That country has nuclear bombs as weapons':

Filsafat Indonesia berdasarkan Pancasila.
The philosophy of Indonesia is based on Pancasila.
Negara itu bersenjatakan bom nuklir.
That country is armed with nuclear weapons/has nuclear weapons.

As in the above examples, these verbs refer not to actions but to states; there are no corresponding passive forms. Other verbs in this group include:

beranggotakan have as members
bercita-citakan have as an ideal, aspire to
bersendikan have as a pivotal point
berisikan have as contents, contain

beristrikan have as a wife
bertepikan have as an edge, be edged with

1.263 With some verbs the suffix **-kan** can be omitted. In the following examples optional **-kan** is indicated in parentheses:

Botol ini berisi(kan) obat.
This bottle contains medicine.
FIS beranggota(kan) lima belas ribu orang.
FIS has fifteen thousand (people as) members.
Rumah Sucipto beratap(kan) genting dan berdinding(kan) bambu.
Sucipto's house has a tile roof and bamboo walls.

Some other verbs always retain **-kan** if there is a complement. However, corresponding to all **ber-...-kan** verbs with noun bases are **ber-** verbs with no complement, meaning 'have [base]' (see 1.170). The **ber-** verbs in the following examples can be compared with the corresponding **ber-...-kan** verbs given in section 1.262:

Pendapatnya tidak berdasar.
His opinion has no basis.
Awas, dia bersenjata.
Careful, he's armed.

1.264 A number of **ber-...-kan** verbs have verb bases. These also form the bases for **-an** nouns and the **ber-...-kan** verb means the same as it would if it had the corresponding **-an** noun as a base. Thus **bertuliskan** means 'have (complement) as writing (**tulisan**), have (complement) written on it, be inscribed with (complement)'; **bertutupkan** means 'have (complement) as a cover (**tutupan**), be covered with (complement):

Foto-foto presiden dan para menteri bertuliskan "for sale".
The photos of the president and ministers had "for sale" written on them.
Puncak gunung itu bertutupkan salju.
The peak of the mountain is covered in snow.

Other verbs like this, together with corresponding **-an** nouns, include:

berhiaskan have as a decoration (**hiasan**), be decorated with
berlukiskan have as a painting (**lukisan**), be painted with
berukirkan have as carvings (**ukiran**)
berikutkan have as a following attachment (**ikutan**), be followed by
bercoretkan have as graffiti (**coretan**), be scrawled with

Such formations are fairly productive in the modern language and an increasing number are occurring, especially in journalistic style, which are not included in dictionaries.

The verb **bermandikan (peluh/cahaya)** 'be bathed in (sweat/light)' has no corresponding **-an** noun.

*Verbs with prefix **ter-***

1.265 Most **ter-** verbs fit one of three categories: stative, accidental, abilitative.

*Stative **ter-** verbs*

1.266 These verbs refer to a state of affairs. As there is no action involved there cannot be an actor. They thus contrast with **di-** passive verbs which refer to an action. The verbs **diletakkan** 'placed (by someone)' and **ditulis** 'written (by someone)' refer to actions and can hence take an agent, while **terletak** 'situated' and **tertulis** 'written' refer to the state which exists following an action:

Koran siapa yang diletakkan di atas meja?
Whose newspaper has been placed on the table?
Koran siapa yang terletak di atas meja?
Whose newspaper is (located) on the table?

Surat itu ditulis(nya) dalam bahasa Inggris.
That letter was written (by him) in English.
Surat itu tertulis dalam bahasa Inggris.
That letter is written in English.

No other affix can cooccur with stative **ter-**; any affix present with the corresponding basic verb is deleted, as with **-kan** in the first example above. Other examples of stative **ter-** are:

Patung dewa itu terbuat dari emas.
The statue of the god was made from gold.
Pengetahuannya sangat terbatas.
His knowledge is very limited.
Koran ini tertanggal 20 April.
This newspaper is dated 20 April.

All stative **ter-** verbs correspond to basic passive verbs which describe the action from which the state results. Other verbs in this group include:

terkenal well-known
terputus severed, broken off
tertutup shut
tertarik attracted, interested
terbuka open
tersedia available
tercatat noted
tersebut mentioned
terlibat involved
terjamin guaranteed
tercemar polluted
terhormat honoured, respected

Accidental ***ter-***

1.267 The word 'accidental' is a cover term for a variety of uncontrolled actions and it is not appropriate in all cases; depending on the particular verb and the context other terms may be more appropriate, such as 'unintended, unexpected, agentless, involuntary, sudden'.

Verbs in English do not distinguish between accidental and deliberate action. Thus, 'He left his bag in the library' may refer to a deliberate act or to an unintended act, usually context making clear which is meant. In Indonesian the contrast is usually made explicit. In the following sentences **ditinggalkan** 'left' and **dijatuhkan** 'dropped' refer to deliberate actions while **tertinggal** and **terjatuh** refer to accidental actions:

Tasnya ditinggalkan di perpustakaan.
His bag was left (deliberately) in the library.
Tasnya tertinggal di perpustakaan.

His bag was left (accidentally) in the library.

Piring dijatuhkan.
The plate was dropped (deliberately).
Piring terjatuh.
The plate was dropped (accidentally)/The plate fell.

Accidental **ter-** verbs can be either intransitive or transitive.

*Intransitive accidental **ter-** verbs*

1.268 These verbs behave like basic intransitive verbs except that they explicitly state that the subject undergoes something unintended, the action often occurring suddenly and unexpectedly.

Latif tertidur di kelas.
Latif fell asleep in class.
Saja tergelincir di jalan.
I slipped on the road.
Tadi pagi saya terbangun jam lima.
This morning I woke (suddenly and unintentionally) at five o'clock.

Other verbs in this subgroup include:

terdiam fall silent
tertegun stop suddenly
terlompat jump suddenly
terjadi happen
terkejut be startled
terbakar catch fire
terpekik scream suddenly
tersandung stumble

*Transitive accidental **ter-** verbs*

1.269 Transitive accidental verbs are passive. Passive type one (see 3.27) always occurs, even if the agent is first or second person:

Maaf, buku saudara terbawa oleh saya.
Sorry, I took your book by mistake.
Maaf, penamu terpakai oleh saya.
Sorry, I used your pen by mistake.

When the agent is a pronoun, as in the above examples, **oleh** 'by' must occur. It can be omitted if the agent is a noun:

Obat itu terminum anak saya.
The medicine was accidentally drunk by my child.

An agent is not necessarily expressed and sometimes the situation is agentless, or is perceived as such, or the agent is of no importance to the event being related:

Waktu tabrakan terjadi sopir terlempar dari taksi.
When the accident occurred the driver was thrown from the taxi.
Dia tersabet dengan senjata tajam.
He was slashed with a sharp weapon.
Tertipulah kamu!
You were tricked!

Sometimes **ter-** and **di-** forms can be used together to contrast deliberate and accidental action:

Dia ditembak atau tertembak polisi.
He was shot deliberately or accidentally by the police.

Other transitive accidental **ter-** verbs include:

tertabrak collided with
tepergok caught red handed
tertangkap caught, arrested
termakan eaten
terluka injured
terbunuh killed

1.270 Accidental **ter-** verbs are not often associated with basic verbs with suffix **-i** or **-kan**. When they are the suffix usually drops:

Agassi dan Graf tersingkir.
Agassi and Graf were eliminated.
Penduduk setempat tidak akan terpengaruh oleh rencana pemerintah.
The local population won't be affected by the government plan.
Kita memang mudah terpesona oleh barang-barang mahal.
We are indeed easily enticed by expensive goods.

The **ter-** verbs in the above three sentences correspond to the basic verbs **disingkirkan** 'eliminated', **dipengaruhi** 'influenced', and **dipesonakan** 'enchanted' respectively.

Sometimes a suffix occurring on the basic verb is retained on the **ter-** verb, especially in journalistic usage. Dictionaries and grammars differ markedly in what they list and there is considerable doubt and disagreement among speakers as to whether suffixes can occur with some verbs. Sometimes a suffix is used by some people but not others. The verb in the following example corresponds to the basic verb **digenangi**:

Tujuh ratus rumah tergenangi/tergenang air.
Seven hundred houses were covered in water.

However, for some speakers a suffix is always unacceptable with accidental **ter-** verbs. Dropping of suffixes with accidental **ter-** verbs is further discussed in section 1.274.

1.271 The verb **teringat** 'remember, recall (suddenly)' is exceptional in a number of ways. It allows a pronoun agent without **oleh**:

Teringatku suatu peristiwa.
I remembered an incident.

It allows either an active clause structure, resembling intransitive **ingat akan/pada** 'remember', or a passive clause structure, resembling **diingat** 'remembered':

Keluarga itu teringat oleh saya.
Saya teringat akan keluarga itu.
I suddenly thought of that family.

*Abilitative **ter-** verbs*

1.272 These verbs indicate that the agent has the ability to perform the action. All abilitative constructions are transitive and passive. As with accidentals, only passive type one structures (see 3.27) occur, even with first and second person agents.

Abilitative verbs are usually negated, indicating the inability of the agent to perform the action:

Mobil semahal itu tidak terbeli oleh saya.

I can't afford to buy a car as expensive as that.
Masalah itu belum terselesaikan oleh kami.
We haven't yet been able to settle that matter.

Frequently an agent is not expressed:
Suara dosen tidak terdengar dari sini.
The lecturer can't be heard from here.
Soal kemacetan lalu lintas belum terpecahkan.
The problem of traffic congestion cannot yet be solved.
Blok-blok perdagangan regional tak terhindari lagi.
Regional trading blocks can no longer be avoided.

As shown in the above examples, if a basic verb has suffix **-kan** or **-i**, this is regularly retained on the corresponding abilitative **ter-** verb (while it is almost always dropped with accidental verbs - see 1.270).

Although abilitative **ter-** verbs are usually negated this is not always the case:
Kini arteri yang buntu terpintasi.
Nowadays blocked arteries can be bypassed.
Lebih dari seratus orang terselamatkan dari feri *Estonia*.
More than a hundred people have been saved from the ferry *Estonia*. (literally: ...were able to be saved...)
Apa pekerjaan itu terselesaikan?
Can that work be finished?

There is nowadays a tendency for redundant **dapat** 'can' to occur if the verb is not negated:
Diharapkan pencemaran limbah pabrik dapat teratasi.
It is hoped pollution by factory waste can be overcome.
Ini semua dapat tercapai berkat kemajuan teknik.
All of this can be achieved thanks to technological progress.

Instead of a **ter-** verb, a basic **di-** verb with **bisa** or **dapat** 'can' very frequently occurs to indicate ability:
Masalah ini belum dapat dipecahkan.
This problem cannot yet be solved.

Other abilitative **ter-** verbs (given in the positive) include:

teramalkan can be predicted
terelakkan can be avoided
terkendalikan can be controlled
terlihat visible, can be seen
terpisahkan can be separated
tersingkapkan can be revealed
tertahankan can be endured

A number of negated **ter-** verbs have English equivalents with *un-/in-...-able:*

tidak terkatakan indescribable
tidak terdengar inaudible
tidak terhindarkan unavoidable
tidak terlihat invisible
tidak terlukiskan indescribable

*Potentially ambiguous **ter-** verbs*

1.273 Some **ter-** verbs are potentially ambiguous as to accidental and abilitative action, although context usually makes clear which meaning is intended. In their first occurrence below each of the verbs **terbawa** and **tercuci** indicates ability, this being made clear by the phrases **kau ... sendiri** and **sebanyak itu**. In the second example of each accidental action is made clear by the use of **maaf** with **terbawa** and the overall situation with **tercuci**, that is, the implausibility of washing a letter other than accidentally:

Apa terbawa oleh kau paket-paket itu sendiri?
Were you able to carry those parcels by yourself?
Maaf, koran saudara terbawa oleh saya.
Sorry, I took your newspaper my mistake.

Apa tercuci olehmu pakaian sebanyak itu?
Did you manage to wash that many clothes?
Suratmu tercuci oleh ibu bersama dengan pakaianmu.
Mother unintentionally washed your letter along with your clothes.[13]

It is possible for a word to be ambiguous as to all three basic functions of **ter-**, although context makes the intention clear.

13 These examples are based on Johns (1978: 251, 253).

Thus the word **terbuka** is usually understood as stative, as in the first example below, although, depending on the meaning of the sentence, it can be accidental, as in the second example, or abilitative, as in the third example:

Pintu terbuka.
The door is open.
Matanya terbuka lebar karena keheranan.
His eyes opened wide with amazement.
Akhirnya pintu itu terbuka juga olehnya.
Finally he did manage to open the door.

*Retention and loss of suffixes with **ter-** verbs*

1.274 If a basic transitive verb has a suffix this is retained with an abilitative **ter-** verb (see 1.272) but usually dropped with an accidental verb, as discussed in 1.270. Thus, corresponding to **dipikirkan** 'thought about' is **terpikir** 'unintentionally thought' and **(tidak) terpikirkan** 'can (not) be thought':

Hal itu belum pernah terpikir olehnya.
That had never entered his mind.
Harapan seperti itu tak terpikirkan oleh ayahnya.
Such a prospect was unthinkable for her father. (literally: ...could not be thought by her father.)

*Other forms with **ter-***

1.275 There are many **ter-** verbs which do not fit easily into any of the three categories described in sections 1.266 to 1.272. Some verbs like **tertawa** 'laugh' and **tersenyum** 'smile' can be grouped with intransitive accidentals (see 1.268), indicating action which is considered beyond the control of the subject. Some words with **ter-** are not verbs; they belong to other word classes and in many cases it is doubtful if the component **ter** can always be regarded as a prefix in the modern language. Such words include **terlalu** 'too', **terlambat** 'late', **terhadap** 'towards', **terutama** 'especially', **termasuk** 'including'.

*Verbs with circumfix **ke-...-an***

1.276 With a few exceptions these verbs are adversatives; they indicate that the subject undergoes an unpleasant or undesired experience or event.

Unlike basic verbs, adversative verbs explicitly focus attention on the adverse effect of the event on the subject. The following two sentences can be translated in the same way:

Mobil Tomo dicuri.
Tomo kecurian mobil.
Tomo's car was stolen.

However, the first sentence is simply a statement of what happened to Tomo's car, while the second sentence specifically indicates that Tomo undergoes something unpleasant. It could more literally be translated, 'Tomo suffered the stealing of his car', 'Tomo had his car stolen', or 'Tomo was robbed of his car'.

There is only a limited number of adversative verbs and new formations are not common. In colloquial speech numerous forms occur with **ke-...-an** under Javanese influence, where standard Indonesian has prefix **ter-**. These are not discussed here. The few forms occurring in standard speech which have **ter-** equivalents are, however, discussed in the following sections.

A number of subgroups can be recognised, based on the relationships between the constituents.

1.277 Verbs in this subgroup (subgroup 1) derive from basic intransitive verbs in clauses whose subject noun phrase contains a head noun and a possessor, such as the following:

Uang Tomo hilang.
Tomo's money is lost.

The possessor of the basic construction - **Tomo** in the above example - becomes subject of the **ke-...-an** verb and the original head noun - **uang** in the above example - is expressed as a complement (see 3.65) following the verb:

Tomo kehilangan uang.
Tomo has lost his money (Tomo has suffered the loss of his money).

Other verbs in this group include:

kehabisan suffer from (complement) being used up, run out of (complement)
kematian suffer the death of (complement)
kekurangan suffer a deficiency of (complement), lack (complement)

Also in this subgroup is **keguguran** 'have a miscarriage (literally: suffer the falling)'. This verb does not have a complement, as it is understood:

Ibu Asma keguguran tadi malam.
Mrs Asma had a miscarriage last night.

Although the complement is always something possessed by the subject, possessive **-nya** is rare, but can occur:

Mereka kematian ayah(nya).
They have lost their father.

These verbs must be distinguished from nouns derived from similar bases with **ke-...-an** (see 1.77). These nouns, such as **kematian** 'death' in the following example, occur in different environments from the verbs:

Kematian ayahnya sangat menyedihkan.
The death of his father was very saddening.

1.278 Verbs in this subgroup (subgroup 2) correspond to transitive passive verbs. Like verbs described in 1.277 they have a complement indicating something possessed by the subject. An example with **kecurian** 'suffer from the theft of (complement)' is given in section 1.276.

Other verbs in this subgroup include:

kecopetan have (complement) stolen by a pickpocket
kemalingan be burgled of (complement)

Unlike verbs in subgroup 1, these verbs can occur without a complement:

Saya kecopetan (dompet) di bus.
I was pickpocketed (of my wallet) on the bus.

1.279 Subgroup 3 verbs are based on nouns. The subject is adversely affected by what the base indicates. In the

following sentence the subject is unpleasantly affected by **malam** 'night

Dia kemalaman di hutan.
He was overtaken by night in the forest.

Other verbs in this group include:

kehujanan be caught in the rain
kesiangan be overtaken by daylight
kebanjiran be flooded
ketulangan have a bone caught in the throat
keracunan be poisoned
kecanduan be addicted

The verb **kegelapan** 'overtaken by the dark' belongs in this group although it has an adjective base. Some of these verbs also occur in subgroup 5 (see 1.281).

1.280 Subgroup 4 verbs are based on adjectives. The subject suffers from what the base indicates to a severe degree. The difference between the adjective alone and the verb derived from it is shown in the following examples:

Dia lapar.
He is hungry.
Dia kelaparan.
He is famished/starving.

Other verbs in this group include:

kepanasan suffer from heat, be overcome by heat
kedinginan suffer extremely from cold
kehausan suffer from severe thirst
kesakitan be in pain
kesepian be lonely
ketakutan be terrified

These verbs must be distinguished from homophonous nouns derived from the same adjectives (see 1.73). Thus **ketakutan** 'be terrified' is homophonous with **ketakutan** 'fear', although they have a different distribution in sentences:

Dia ketakutan.
He is terrified.
Dia hidup dalam ketakutan.

He lives in fear.

They must also be distinguished from colloquial adjectives meaning 'too [base]' (see 1.123). Such adjectives have an inanimate subject while the verbs have a human subject:

Kami kedinginan tadi malam.
We were freezing last night.
Air ini kedinginan bagi saya.
This water is too cold for me.

1.281 Subgroup 5 verbs have the same meaning as corresponding basic verbs with affixation **di-...-i**, except that the action is explicitly adversative, the difference being shown by the following:

Bu Hartini didatangi wartawan.
Mrs Hartini was visited by a journalist.
Bu Hartini kedatangan wartawan.
Mrs Hartini was unexpectedly visited by a journalist.

With verbs in this subgroup the noun following the verb is the agent. If it is perceived as the human instigator of the action, the actor (see 3.17), then it can be preceded by **oleh** 'by', as in the first example below. If, however, it is inanimate, as in the second example below, then the use of **oleh** is unacceptable to many people:

Dia ketahuan (oleh) ayahnya.
He was found out by his father.
Dia kejatuhan durian.
He was hit by a falling durian fruit.

Other verbs in this subgroup include:

kedapatan be discovered, caught in the act
kemasukan be possessed, infiltrated
ketularan be infected, contaminated
ketumbuhan be overgrown with
ketumpahan be spilled on

The verbs **ketahuan** and **kedapatan** allow a verbal complement (see 3.72):

Dia kedapatan menggelapkan uang negara.
He was caught embezzling state funds.

Pemilik toko itu ketahuan oleh polisi menjual burung-burung kookaburra.
The shop owner was caught by the police selling kookaburras.

A few verbs in subgroup 3 (section 1.279) can also occur in subgroup 5. As subgroup 3 verbs they are based on nouns and do not have an agent, while as subgroup 5 verbs they correspond to **di-...-i** verbs and can have an agent. In the first sentence below **kebanjiran** is based on the noun **banjir** 'flood' and means 'subjected to flood (**banjir**)', while in the second sentence it corresponds to **dibanjiri** 'be flooded' and occurs with an agent:

Kota itu kebanjiran.
The town was flooded.
Kota itu kebanjiran (oleh) turis asing.
The town was flooded with foreign tourists.

Some other subgroup 5 verbs which also occur in subgroup 3 are given here with exemplary agents and corresponding basic verbs:

keracunan (permen basi) be poisoned (by spoiled sweets) (**diracuni** poisoned)
kehujanan (batu) be rained on (by stones) (**dihujani** rained on)

1.282 Subgroup 6 includes several verbs whose subject is not the person adversely affected but the thing possessed by that person. In this respect they resemble **ter-** verbs (see 1.269). In the following sentence the person adversely affected by **kebongkaran** 'be broken into' is **saya** 'I', the possessor of the house:

Rumah saya kebongkaran.
My house was broken into.

The '**ter**-like' character of these verbs is seen with **kebakaran** 'catch fire, be burned' which has the same meaning as **terbakar**:

Kapal itu kebakaran/terbakar.
The ship caught fire.

With **ketinggalan** 'be left behind' a person can be subject only if he or she is the 'thing' left behind:

Saya ketinggalan bis.
I missed the bus. (literally: I was left behind by the bus.)

1.283 Two **ke-...-an** verbs are not adversative. These are **kelihatan** 'can be seen, visible; looks, seems' and **kedengaran** 'can be heard, audible; sounds, seems':

Rumahnya tidak kelihatan dari sini.
His house can't be seen from here.
Musik itu kedengaran dari jalan.
The music can be heard from the road.

Meaning 'can be seen/heard' these verbs function like passive verbs and can take an agent. If the agent is a pronoun occurrence of **oleh** 'by' is obligatory (see 3.32):

Musik itu kedengaran olehku.
I could hear the music.

These verbs can have a verbal compliment (see example in 3.76).

If the verb means 'seems (looks/sounds)' it cannot take an agent (being intransitive in this function); it can have an adjectival complement (see 3.69) and can take **-nya**:

Supomo kelihatan(nya) sakit.
Supomo looks sick.

1.284 Acting like **kelihatan** are the affixless verbs **nampak** and **tampak** 'can be seen, visible' (with **-nya** these mean 'seems, looks' and function as sentence adjuncts - see 4.107):

Umi tampak/nampak olehku duduk dengan Fatimah dan Salamah.
I could see Umi sitting with Fatimah and Salamah.

*Verbs with prefix **ke-***

1.285 There are only a few verbs occurring with prefix **ke**. The prefix is a borrowing from Javanese and all these verbs are regarded as non-standard to some degree by many

people.[14] Almost all **ke-** verbs correspond to **ter-** accidental verbs. A very few, including the first two listed below, correspond to other forms. More standard forms having the same meaning as **ke-** verbs are given in parentheses for the following examples:

ketemu (bertemu) meet
ketimbang (dibandingkan dengan) compared with
ketawa (tertawa) laugh
kesohor (tersohor) famous
ketipu (tertipu) tricked
ketabrak (tertabrak) collided with
kesasar (tersasar) lost, astray
kepergok (tepergok) caught red handed

14 Chaer (1988: 303) advises against the use of forms like **ketipu** 'tricked' and **ketabrak** 'collided with', advising that **ter-** forms, such as **tertipu** and **tertabrak**, be used instead

2 PHRASES

2.1 This chapter describes phrases and other constructions which combine to form clauses (clauses are described in Chapter Three). A phrase is a group of words which is grammatically equivalent to a single word, being able to occur in the same places as that word. The phrase contains a word of the class to which it is equivalent. This word is the head or head word of the phrase, the rest of the phrase being built around it. The phrase type is identified by the word class of its head. Thus a noun phrase contains a noun, an adjective phrase contains an adjective, and so on.

NOUNS AND NOUN PHRASES

2.2 A noun phrase is a sequence of words which functions in the same way as a noun; that is, it occurs in the same positions in a clause as a single noun. A noun phrase always contains a noun as its head. Nouns are discussed in section 2.3. The other major components of noun phrases are discussed in sections 2.5 to 2.60. Some other components of noun phrases are described elsewhere. A noun occurring alone can be regarded as a (minimal) noun phrase (see 2.4).

Nouns

2.3 A noun can be defined as a word which refers to a person, thing or abstract idea. A number of types of noun can be distinguished.

The specific name of a person, thing, or place is called a proper noun. Proper nouns are spelled with a capital letter: **Soeharto, Jakarta, Jawa, Kompas.** Titles before proper nouns are also treated as part of the proper noun: **Presiden Soeharto, Professor Subrata, Ibu Suparto.** Names of organisations, institutions, events, and countries are also proper nouns: **Bank Bumi Daya, Bandara Sukarno-Hatta, Idul Fitri, Australia.**

A common noun refers to a person or thing which is a member of a set; it is not the specific name of that person or thing: **kucing** 'cat', **pikiran** 'thought', **pulau** 'island', **orang** 'person', **penyakit** 'illness'. A common noun can occur as a proper noun when it is part of a specific name; thus **universitas** 'university' is a common noun except when it is part of the name of a specific university, as in **Universitas Indonesia** 'University of Indonesia'.

Common nouns can be further divided into count nouns and non-count (mass) nouns.

Count nouns refer to things which can be counted: **buku** 'book', **rumah** 'house', **pendapat** 'opinion'. These can be directly preceded by a number (see 2.14) or a classifier (see 2.21): **dua buku** 'two books', **sebuah rumah** 'a house'. They can also be reduplicated to indicate plurality (see 1.14): **buku-buku** 'books', **pendapat-pendapat** 'opinions'.

Non-count nouns cannot be preceded by a number or classifier or be reduplicated to indicate plurality. They refer to processes, substances and the like (either concrete or abstract), rather than individual items: **air** 'water', **gula** 'sugar', **nasi** 'rice', **hujan** 'rain', **keadilan** 'justice'. Although not countable, concrete non-count nouns can be preceded by certain quantifiers (see 2.27ff): **sekilo gula** 'a kilo of sugar', **dua piring nasi** 'two plates of rice'.

Some non-count nouns can be used as count nouns when the context makes it clear that a certain measure or amount is being referred to. Thus **kopi** 'coffee' is a non-count noun but if, in a restaurant for instance, one asks for **dua kopi** 'two coffees', it is clear that what one means is **dua cangkir/gelas kopi** 'two cups/glasses of coffee'.

2.4 A noun can occur alone in a phrase, in which case the phrase consists solely of its head word. The following construction, a clause, consists of two noun phrases, one the subject and one the predicate, each phrase consisting of a single noun:

Ali guru.
Ali is a teacher.

Noun phrases

2.5 Nouns act as heads of a great variety of different phrase structures. Some of the important components of noun phrases are discussed in the following sections. Not all nouns can occur with all the phrase elements discussed; some subclasses of noun are restricted in the elements with which they can cooccur.

Demonstratives

2.6 The demonstratives are **ini** 'this', **itu** 'that', **tersebut** 'already mentioned', and **tadi** 'recently mentioned'.

2.7 The demonstratives **ini** 'this' and **itu** 'that' follow the head noun. As they do not distinguish between one and more than one they also translate 'these' and 'those' respectively:

buku ini this book
kedua buku ini these two books
negeri itu that country
negeri-negeri itu those countries

Demonstratives can occur with all classes of nouns including proper nouns:

Jakarta ini this (city of) Jakarta
Siti itu that (girl) Siti

Both **ini** and **itu** can refer to someone or something previously mentioned but not now present:

Bagaimana rumah itu?
What is that house (about which we have been talking) like?
Orang ini baik sekali.
This person (who we are talking about) is very good.

They can also refer to something physically present, as when pointing:

Saya tinggal di rumah ini.
I live in this house.
Duduk di kursi itu.
Sit in that chair.

When referring to something present, but not when referring to something previously mentioned but not now present, **ini** and **itu** can optionally be preceded by **yang** for emphasis:

Rumah besar itu rumah Tomo; saya tinggal di rumah yang ini.
That big house is Tomo's; I live in this house.
Tulis di buku yang itu; ini buku saya.
Write in that book; this book is mine.

Besides referring to something being pointed at or something previously mentioned, **itu** can also be used with generic nouns:

Harimau itu binatang liar.
The tiger is a wild animal.

In the above sentence **harimau itu**, like the English 'the tiger', refers to all members of the group. Likewise, **itu** can be used with certain nominalised verbal clauses (see 3.143), referring to all instances of the action:

Lari itu sehat.
Running is healthy.

2.8 The use of **itu** sometimes proves a difficulty for many English speakers, sometimes inaccurately being equated with 'the'. While both words refer to something definite, a number of differences occur in their usage. In English 'the' is

obligatory with a noun which refers to something unique, whereas **itu** cannot occur in this context:

matahari the sun **bulan** the moon

Many nouns refer to something which is unique to one context but may not be unique in other contexts. Thus **perdana menteri** 'prime minister' refers to someone unique in the discussion of a particular country but not in a discussion referring to a number of countries. Where it is unique, as in the first sentence below, **itu** cannot occur; where it is not unique, as in the second sentence, **itu** can occur:

Perdana menteri sudah pulang.
The Prime Minister has returned home.
Kedua perdana menteri itu bersalaman.
The two prime ministers greeted each other.

In English 'the' can refer to something not previously mentioned, whereas **itu** cannot. This matter is further discussed in section 2.50.

2.9 When a non-unique noun has previously been mentioned it is usually marked by **itu** if there is nothing else in the phrase to indicate that it refers back to what has already been mentioned. Thus in **Orang itu teman saya** 'That person is my friend', **orang** 'person' cannot occur alone because there is nothing to tell that it refers to someone already mentioned or being pointed to; only **itu** marks it as definite, and therefore already mentioned. If something else marks the noun as definite **itu** need not occur (see for instance 3.98).

2.10 In formal writing **tersebut** 'previously mentioned' is sometimes used to refer to someone or something already mentioned:

Alasan itu dikemukakan oleh para guru bahasa tersebut.
That reason was put forward by the previously mentioned language teachers.

2.11 Although **tadi** 'just recently' usually occurs as an adjunct of time (see 2.191) it can follow a noun to refer back to someone or something recently mentioned or recently present:

Kedua pacar tadi sekarang sudah menjadi suami istri.
The two lovers (who were mentioned a short while ago) have now become husband and wife.
Anaknya mengintip adegan seram tadi.
His child spied the frightening scene (just referred to).
Bagaimana pendapat saudara tentang orang tadi?
What's your opionion of that person (who was here a moment ago)?

Quantifiers

2.12 There are several types of quantifier, including definite and indefinite numbers. Partitives, which indicate amount, combine with numbers to form quantifiers. Classifiers are not themselves quantifiers. However, as they behave in some ways similar to partitives and must occur with a number, they are included in this section.

Numbers

2.13 Numbers are either definite or indefinite. Definite numbers include cardinal and ordinal numbers, and fractions. In sections 2.14 to 2.20 numbers as a component of noun phrases are discussed. The internal structure of number phrases is discussed in sections 2.106 to 2.117.

2.14 A cardinal number precedes a count noun (see 2.3) to indicate the number of things being referred to:
dua orang two people **sepuluh kota** ten towns

Cardinal numbers are listed in section 2.107.

2.15 A cardinal number can occur after a noun to indicate its position in a series. Cardinal numbers are only used in this way with things which are commonly distinguished from each other by their position within a sequence. A question as to the position of the noun in the sequence is asked by placing **berapa** after the noun (see 4.19). The contrast between occurrence of cardinals before and after the head noun is shown in the following examples:
lima jam five hours : **jam lima** five o'clock
tiga halaman three pages : **halaman tiga** page three
dua kelas two classes : **kelas dua** class two

With dates cardinals are used rather than ordinals:

Mereka akan tiba pada tanggal enam Maret.
They will arrive on the sixth of March.

Cardinals also follow the word **nomor** 'number' to indicate a number in a series:

Jalan Persahabatan nomor tujuh
number seven Persahabatan Street
bis nomor 14
bus number 14

2.16 With nouns which are not usually distinguished by their order in a sequence cardinal numbers cannot be used as described in section 2.15; instead ordinal numbers (see 1.151) are used. These follow the head noun:

orang ketiga the third person
minggu keenam the sixth week

Frequently **yang** precedes the c.dinal:

Ali anaknya yang kedua.
Ali is his second child.

2.17 Ordinal numbers from **kedua** upwards can also occur before the noun as collective numbers to indicate an inclusive group of that many, 'both', 'all three' and so on. Since the noun they refer to is always definite it is always marked by a demonstrative, a possessive or some other element which identifies it:

Saya sudah membaca keempat buku itu.
I've read those four books.
Kelima anaknya pandai.
All five of her children are clever.

When a specific group is not referred to the collective number is replaced by a cardinal number.

Saya sudah membaca empat buku minggu ini.
I've read four books this week.

2.18 Fractions (see 1.149) precede the noun and indicate how large a part of something is compared to the whole:

Dua pertiga orang Indonesia tinggal di pulau Jawa.

Two thirds of Indonesians live in Java.

Fractions can also be included in full numbers (see 2.108).

2.19 Indefinite numbers (see 2.113–7) include words like **banyak** 'many' and **semua** 'all'. Indefinite numbers precede the noun:

Semua orang itu bekerja di kota.
All those people work in town.

The plural marker **para** is a kind of indefinite number, discussed in section 2.116.

2.20 The word **dari** 'of' sometimes separates a number from the following head noun.

If a cardinal number is separated from the noun by **dari** it refers to the number within the group specified by the noun:

Tiga dari orang itu bekerja di rumah sakit.
Three of those people work in the hospital.

Dari optionally occurs between a fraction and the head noun:

Seperlima dari mahasiswa itu naik bis ke kampus.
One fifth of those students get the bus to campus.

A few indefinite numbers are commonly separated from the head by **dari**, including **sebagian** 'a number (of)' and **salah satu/seorang** 'one (of)':

Sebagian dari transmigran itu sudah tahu tentang persawahan.
A number of the transmigrants know about wet rice cultivation.
salah satu/seorang dari teman saya
one of my friends

Classifiers

2.21 A classifier precedes a count noun to place it in a particular noun class. Classifiers are optional (this is further discussed in 2.27) and with many nouns they rarely occur. The classifiers are always preceded by a number. The number plus classifier can also follow the noun, as discussed

in section 2.31. If the noun is singular **se-** 'one' precedes the classifier. Only three classifiers are in frequent use:

orang used with humans : **seorang guru** a teacher
ekor used with living creatures : **dua ekor ular/ikan/kucing** two snakes/fish/cats
buah used with inanimate things : **tiga buah meja/pena/rumah** three tables/pens/houses

Classifiers are far more likely to occur with **se-**, meaning 'one' but translated 'a, an', than with higher numbers. If the classifier is absent **se-** cannot occur:

Dia seorang guru/Dia guru.
He is a teacher.

With a classifier the noun is always indefinite. That is, it does not refer to a specific thing or things; hence a demonstrative or possessor cannot cooccur with a classifier:

seorang guru	cf.	**guru saya/itu**
a teacher		my/that teacher
dua ekor kuda	cf.	**kedua kuda itu**
two horses		those two horses

In journalistic style classifiers occasionally occur with a proper noun, just as 'a' can in English:

Sebuah Indonesia yang kuat dan dinamis penting untuk Asia Tenggara.
A strong and dynamic Indonesia is important for Southeast Asia.

Generic nouns, such as **ikan** 'fish' and **burung** 'bird', can take a modifying noun (see 2.37) and be preceded by a classifier:

seekor ikan hiu a shark
seekor burung elang a hawk

2.22 There are a large number of classifiers, although only the three already mentioned are common. The following list is not exhaustive. There is some overlap in function; for instance, **helai, lembar** and **carik** can all occur with **kertas** 'paper':

batang used with cylindrical objects such as pipes, tree trunks, cigarettes : **Pak Trimo memiliki 25 batang pohon kelapa.** Mr Trimo owns 25 coconut trees.
bentuk used with round and curved objects : **sebentuk cincin/gelang** a ring/bangle.
bidang used with flat, spread-out things : **sebidang tanah** a plot of land
biji used with small, round objects such as soap, cakes, eggs, grains : **dua biji telur** two eggs
bilah used with sharp things such as knives, needles : **Nanda mengancam sopir dengan sebilah pisau.** Nanda threatened the driver with a knife.
carik used with paper : **secarik kertas** a piece of paper
helai used with flat things like leaves, sheets : **sehelai kertas** a sheet of paper
kaki used with umbrellas : **sekaki payung** an umbrella
kuntum used with flowers : **tiga kuntum bunga kemboja** three frangipannis
lembar used with flat things such as paper, sheets : **dua lembar foto** two photographs
patah used with **kata** 'word' : **susunan dua patah kata** a sequence of two words
pucuk used with guns and letters : **sepucuk surat/bedil** a letter/gun
utas used with rope and thread : **Dia mengikatkan seutas tali pada anjing.** He tied a piece of rope to the dog.

2.23 With nouns which do not fit any of the above categories **buah** generally occurs. As the classifiers listed above are rarely used **buah** can replace some of them. Alternatively, a classifier is omitted, indicated by parentheses in the following examples:

Tadi pagi saya menulis tiga (pucuk/buah) surat.
This morning I wrote three letters.
Tangannya memegang (sepucuk/sebuah) pistol.
His hand clutched a pistol.

There is an increasing tendency for **sebuah** to be used with abstract nouns: **sebuah pengamatan/rencana/perdebatan** 'an observation/plan/debate'. The function of **sebuah** overlaps with that of **suatu** 'a', discussed in 2.114.

2.24 Classifiers can be preceded by some indefinite numbers, including **beberapa** 'several', and the interrogative number **berapa** 'how many?' (see 4.19):

beberapa buah buku several books
berapa biji sabun? how many cakes of soap?

2.25 Unlike other classifiers **orang** can occur without a following head noun:

Dia seorang yang jujur.
He is an honest person.

If **se-** does not occur in such situations **orang** must be regarded simply as the noun meaning 'person':

Dia orang yang jujur.
He's an honest person.

The classifier **orang** and the head noun **orang** are sometimes used together, although many speakers avoid this construction:

Seorang orang Perancis diculik di Kamboja kemarin.
A Frenchman was abducted in Cambodia yesterday.

2.26 The word **belah** 'half; one of something which comes in a pair' is sometimes listed with classifiers. It is used mainly with body parts which are in pairs: **sebelah mata** 'an eye', **dua belah tangan** 'two/both hands' and for things like shoes and ornaments worn one on each side of the body: **sebelah subang** 'one ear ring'. Unlike classifiers, it can occur with a definite noun, marked, for instance, by a possessive:

Dia menutup mulutnya dengan kedua belah tangannya.
She covered her mouth with both hands.

Partitives

2.27 Partitives indicate a particular amount of something. They precede the head word, which can be either a count or a non-count noun. Count nouns can alternatively be preceded by a cardinal number or a number plus classifier but non-count nouns cannot. To indicate singular **se-** 'one' precedes the partitive. In some discussions of Indonesian grammar partitives are confused with classifiers. However, there is a clear distinction: classifiers group nouns on the basis of some

perceived intrinsic characteristic, while partitives group nouns on the basis of how they are measured, assembled, or processed. Thus, in **sebatang rokok** 'a cigarette', **batang** is a classifier, marking **rokok** 'cigarette' as a member of the class of cylindrical objects. In **sebungkus rokok** 'a packet of cigarettes', **bungkus** is a partitive, identifying the quantity of cigarettes according to the way they are packaged.

Unlike classifiers, which are always optional, partitives can never be deleted without change of meaning. Thus, deletion of **batang** in the following sentence results in no change in meaning:

Dia mengisap dua batang rokok.
Dia mengisap dua rokok.
He smoked two cigarettes.

On the other hand, deletion of the partitive **bungkus** results in a sentence with a different meaning:

Dia megisap dua bungkus rokok.
He smoked two packets of cigarettes.
Dia mengisap dua rokok.
He smoked two cigarettes.

The number preceding a partitive can be a fraction; in the following example **setengah** 'half' precedes the partitive **gelas** 'glass (of)':

Dia minum setengah gelas air.
He drank half a glass of water.

2.28 Among partitives are containers; any noun indicating something which can contain something else can be used in this way:

bakul basket : **tiga bakul beras** three baskets of rice
botol bottle : **sebotol bir** a bottle of beer
genggam handful : **beberapa genggam nasi** several handfuls of rice
piring plate : **sepiring nasi** a plate of rice
sendok spoon : **dua sendok gula** two spoons of sugar
truk truck : **dua truk pasir** two truckloads of sand

2.29 Partitives include natural and artificial clusterings, groupings and pieces of things, such as:

bulir ear : **sebulir padi** an ear of rice
gugus cluster : **segugus bintang** a cluster of stars
gumpal clump, lump : **segumpal tanah** a clump of soil
iris slice : **dua iris mangga** two slices of mango
jenis kind, sort, species : **sejenis burung** a type/species of bird
kawan herd, flock, gang : **sekawan gajah** a herd of elephants
keping chip, fragment : **sekeping kayu** a splinter of wood
macam kind, sort, type : **semacam senjata** a type of weapon
potong piece, slice : **sepotong roti** a slice of bread
rombongan group, party : **serombongan gubernur** a group of governors
sikat hand, small bunch : **dua sikat pisang** two hands of bananas
tandan bunch : **setandan pisang** a bunch of bananas
tetes drop : **setetes darah** a drop of blood
timbun pile : **lima timbun pasir** five piles of sand

With some members of this subgroup the partitive plus head noun may be reinterpreted as head noun plus modifying noun (see 2.37). In the above list **tandan** 'bunch' is a partitive, while in the following sentence it is the head of a noun phrase, occurring reduplicated and without a number, as can other count nouns:

Dia sedang menata tandan-tandan pisang dagangannya.
She was arranging the banana bunches she had for sale.

Some other partitives in this group more commonly take suffix **-an** if occurring as phrase heads (see 1.65).

2.30 Measurement nouns can act as partitives. A measurement noun refers to size, distance, volume, speed, weight or temperature:

meter meter
kilometer kilometer
liter liter
ton tonne
hektar hectare
derajat degree
kodi a score (for purchase of cloth)
depa fathom, measure from finger tip to finger tip

hasta cubit, measure from elbow to finger tip

Measurement nouns are always preceded by a number, forming measurement noun phrases:

dua kilometer two kilometers
tiga seperempat ton three and a quarter tons
dua puluh delapan derajat (selsius) twenty eight degrees (celsius)
beberapa liter several liters

Measurement nouns referring to length, area, volume and weight can occur in partitive constructions to indicate the amount of something:

sekilo beras a kilo of rice
dua liter susu two liters of milk
tiga puluh ribu hektar lahan thirty thousand hectares of land
setengah meter rotan half a metre of cane
dua kodi kain two kodi (= forty pieces) of cloth

Numbers, classifiers and partitives; further comments

2.31 Both classifiers and partitives can follow the head noun:

Dia mengimpor kursi sebanyak 8000 buah.
He imported as many as 8000 chairs.
Dia datang membawa susu dua gelas.
She came with two glasses of milk.
Ibu membeli beras dua kilo.
Mother bought two kilos of rice.

2.32 Many classifiers and partitives are basically nouns and can occur as heads of noun phrases. Words functioning as classifiers sometimes have a different meaning when functioning as a head noun. Thus the classifiers **ekor**, grouping animals, and **buah**, grouping inanimate things, mean 'tail' and 'fruit' respectively when occurring as nouns:

Ekor anjing ini panjang.
This dog's tail is long.
Buah pohon ini enak.
The fruit of this tree is delicious.

All partitives indicating containers (see 2.28) also occur as full nouns:

Botol ini retak.
This bottle is cracked.

2.33 Group numbers and some partitives, including those indicating containers (see 2.28), and measurement nouns (see 2.30), can be reduplicated and prefixed with **ber-** to indicate an indefinite quantity (see also 1.161 and 1.162 for further examples):

berjuta-juta orang millions of people
berliter-liter susu litres and litres of milk
berbotol-botol bir bottles and bottles of beer
bermacam-macam tanaman all sorts of plants

Diminutives and honorifics

2.34 These occur immediately before the head noun to convey an attitude on the part of the speaker, usually of affection or respect.

Si

2.35 This is a diminutive. It is used with the names of children, emphasising their smallness or a feeling of affection on the part of the speaker:

si Ali Ali (a child)

Si can also be used with the names of animals, especially pets or animals in folk stories. In this case it is a personifier as well as diminutive:

si Putih Whitey (name of an pet)
si Kancil Mousedeer (character in folk stories)

It can occur with adjectives, usually those indicating physical characteristics, turning the adjective into a proper noun while still acting as a diminutive:

si Botak Baldy **si Gemuk** Fatty
si Tolol Dopey

The nominalised adjective may become a common noun, in which case the diminutive sense is usually absent:

Pembagian pangan yang tak merata membuat si gendut makin kaya, tanpa peduli nasib si miskin, yang hampir mati kelaparan.
Unequal distribution of food makes the fat one increasingly rich, without caring about the fate of the poor one, who almost dies of hunger.

It also occurs with common nouns, most frequently those formed with **peN-** (see 1.46). Here there is no diminutive connotation:

si pembawa resep
the one who brought the prescription
Si pengirim foto tidak menyebutkan namanya.
The sender of the photos didn't mention his name.

Sang

2.36 This is an honorific. It shows that the person referred to is someone held in high respect:

sang Raja the King
sang Presiden the President

Like **si**, it can occur with names of animals in folk tales. It also occurs before the name of the Indonesian flag, thus acting as a personifier as well as retaining its role as an honorific:

sang Harimau Tiger
sang Merah Putih the Red and White (the Indonesian flag)

It can also be used facetiously or even sarcastically to indicate the speaker's negative attitude towards someone who is perhaps more highly regarded than he deserves:

Sekitar tiga puluh tahun silam nama John Profumo melambung di media massa karena sang menteri terlibat skandal seks dengan seorang pelacur.
About thirty years ago the name of John Profumo was prominent in the media because the esteemed minister was involved in a sex scandal with a prostitute.

Modifying nouns

2.37 A noun can be followed by another noun called a modifying noun. A modifying noun gives more specific

information about the head noun. There is a wide range of relationships between the two nouns. The modifying noun can indicate what the head noun is made of, where it comes from, what it is used for, what it does, where it is, what it is part of, what sex it is, what process it has undergone, and so on. The following examples illustrate a number of these relationships:

toko buku book shop
guru bahasa language teacher
sate ayam chicken sate
buku sejarah history book
pemain tenis tennis player
ilmu kedokteran medical science
mesin pendingin cooling machine
tukang kayu carpenter (wood artisan)
buku catatan note book
anak perempuan girl (female child)
orang Jepang Japanese (person)
kapal Indonesia Indonesian ship
kain batik batik cloth
pinggir jalan edge of the road

Some modifying relationships occur only with action nouns; these are discussed in section 2.53.

2.38 No other word can come between a head word and following modifying noun. Any word following the modifying noun refers to the head word and not to the modifying noun:

toko buku yang besar a big book shop
guru sekolah itu that school teacher

An exception is that some modifying nouns can themselves take a modifier. In the first example below the head of the noun phrase is **awak** 'crew'. The modifying noun **bis** 'bus' has its own modifying noun, **kota** 'city':

awak bis kota city bus crew
buku sejarah Indonesia Indonesian history book
gelombang keresahan sosial a wave of social unrest

2.39 In some cases the modifying noun must itself be modified, that is, the phrase would be incomplete if consisting

just of the head word and modifier. In such cases the modifier is a **peN-** noun based on a transitive verb (see 1.46) and its own modifier relates to the object of the corresponding verb. The first example below relates to **Pasukan itu memelihara perdamaian** 'Those troops keep the peace'; **pasukan pemelihara** is not well-formed unless **pemelihara** 'keeper, maintainer' has the modifier **perdamaian** 'peace'. The modifier and its own modifier act as a compound and are hyphenated in English equivalents:

pasukan pemelihara perdamaian peace-keeping forces
propinsi penghasil lada pepper-producing province
kapal pembawa plutonium plutonium-carrying ship
kunjungan pencari fakta fact-finding visit

Possessors

2.40 A possessor follows the head word. It can be a noun or a pronoun:

rumah Tomo Tomo's house
nama negeri itu the name of that country
mobil saya my car

Possessive pronouns are further discussed in section 2.72. Possessive nouns differ from modifying nouns (see 2.37ff) in that they can themselves be the head of a noun phrase. In the following example the possessor, **toko** 'shop', is head of a noun phrase which contains a modifier and demonstrative:

nama toko buku itu the name of that book shop

As head of a noun phrase a possessive noun can also take a possessor:

kantor ayah saya my father's office
mobil teman Marni Marni's friend's car

Out of context ambiguity may exist as to whether a noun is modifying or possessive. Thus **bis** 'bus' is a modifier in the first example below, describing what kind of driver **Ali** is, but possessor in the second:

Ali sopir bis.
Ali is a bus driver.
Sopir bis ini belum muncul.
The driver of this bus hasn't turned up yet.

2.41 A possessive noun does not always identify the owner of the head word; it may identify the originator, creator or some other relationship. In the following phrase **sastrawan** 'man of letters' is the writer of the novel, a relationship sometimes indicated by 'by' in English:

roman sastrawan ini the novel of/by this man of letters

2.42 Sometimes a possessor is optionally preceded by a modifying noun (see 2.37) which specifies the particular relationship between the possessor and head word. The modifier is not obligatory to the construction. Thus, in **buku ciptaan Pak Sastro** the modifier **ciptaan** 'creation' specifies that **Pak Sastro** 'Mr Sastro' is the writer of the book rather than the owner. However, the modifier could be omitted, resulting in **buku Pak Sastro** 'Mr Sastro's book', although this does not explicitly state whether he is writer or owner:

buku ciptaan Pak Sastro
Mr Sastro's book; the book written by Mr Sastro
kios milik Pak Junus
Mr Junus' kiosk; the kiosk owned by Mr Junus
barang buatan Jepang
Japanese goods; goods made in Japan
partai pimpinan Hawke
Hawke's party; the party led by Hawke

2.43 A ligature **dari** 'of' sometimes occurs between head and possessive noun, although it cannot occur before a possessive pronoun:

rumah dari Bu Siti Mrs Siti's house

Use of **dari** before a possessor is regarded as substandard by many people. However, it is frequently used if the head word and possessor are the same or similar:

guru dari guru saya
my teacher's teacher
lukisan dari pelukis-pelukis Italia
paintings by Italian artists

2.44 Also occurring as a ligature before possessive nouns is **-nya**:

anaknya guru kami our teacher's child

In this context **-nya** carries no meaning other than to identify the second noun as possessor. Its use is particularly common among speakers of Javanese, in which a similar construction occurs. It is likely to occur where a kin relationship would be ambiguous. Thus **Ibu Suparjo** could mean 'Suparjo's mother' or 'Mrs Suparjo'. With ligature **-nya** possession is the only possible meaning:

ibunya Suparjo Suparjo's mother

Adjectives in the noun phrase

2.45 An adjective immediately follows the phrase head:

rumah besar a big house

Adjectives are frequently preceded by **yang**. The **yang** plus adjective construction is actually an instance of a relative clause (see 3.98). However, because of its frequency it deserves separate treatment here.

A noun plus adjective sequence forms a close unit, expressing a single idea without any emphasis on the adjective. Use of **yang** separates the adjective from the noun and gives emphasis to it. This occurs, for instance, when a contrast is made:

Mereka tinggal di rumah yang besar, bukan rumah yang kecil.

They live in a big house, not a small house.

If a noun plus adjective sequence is a compound (see 1.32) **yang** cannot occur:

rumah sakit hospital

imigran gelap illegal immigrant

Some noun plus adjective sequences are either compounds, with idiomatic meaning, or genuine sequences, depending on context. The combination can only be separated by **yang** if it is not a compound. Thus:

kamar kecil toilet; small room : **kamar yang kecil** small room

orang tua parents; old people : **orang yang tua** old people

meja hijau law court; green table : **meja yang hijau** green table
kambing hitam scapegoat; black goat : **kambing yang hitam** black (coloured) goat

If more than one adjective occurs the first may form a close unit with the noun while the second is preceded by **yang**:

gadis kuno yang malu-malu
a shy old-fashioned girl
tubuh tua yang ringkih
a frail old body

Coordinated adjectives must be preceded by **yang**:

anak yang rajin dan pandai
a hard-working and clever child

A sequence of more than two adjectives usually requires **dan** 'and' only before the final adjective:

wanita yang cantik, periang dan cerdas
a woman who is beautiful, cheerful and intelligent

Yang is obligatory before an adjective phrase (see 2.99ff) within the noun phrase except that it need not occur before a superlative adjective phrase with **paling** or **ter-** 'most':

gempa bumi terburuk di daerah ini
the worst earthquake in this district
kelompok paling kuat
the strongest group

With other adjective phrases **yang** is obligatory:

jas yang terlalu besar
a jacket which is too big
orang yang lebih kaya
richer people

As **yang** actually introduces a relative clause, predicate elements (see 2.132ff) such as negative and temporal markers can precede the adjective:

pakaian yang tidak mahal
clothes which aren't expensive
orang yang sudah cape

people who are already tired

Modifying verbs

2.46 A modifying verb immediately follows the head noun and describes what the noun is used for. Verbal affixes are usually lost:

kamar tidur bedroom
kamar mandi bathroom
meja tulis desk, writing table
mesin ketik typewriter
ruang tunggu waiting room
lapangan terbang aerodrome

Some people retain prefix **ber-** on a modifying verb; others regard this as incorrect:

kolam renang/berenang swimming pool
tempat kerja/bekerja work place

Some modifying verbs indicate the process the noun undergoes:

nasi goreng fried rice
ubi rebus boiled cassava

Attributive verbs

2.47 The relationship between the head noun and attributive verb is that of subject and verb in a clause. Attributive verbs differ from relative clauses (see 3.98) in two ways.

First, **yang** does not precede the verb. Secondly, the attributive verb, unlike the verb in a relative clause, cannot be expanded by other clause components, except as indicated below. Attributive verbs are usually **ber-** verbs with a noun base (see 1.169ff). These refer to states or permanent conditions, not to actions:

kendaraan bermotor motor vehicle
sayur-sayuran bergizi nutritious vegetables
perampok bersenjata armed robbers

Some attributive verbs have compound noun bases consisting of a head noun and a following adjective or number (see 1.176):

pesawat berbadan lebar a wide-bodied plane
gedung bertingkat tiga a three-storey building
bocah berusia sembilan tahun a nine year old boy

The noun which forms the base of the attributive verb may be modified by another noun:

rumah beratap seng a tin-roofed house
kapal berbendera Amerika a ship with an American flag
listrik bertenaga surya solar-powered electricity

The attributive verb may have a noun complement (see 3.64):

pemuda bernama Gaston a youth named Gaston
buku berjudul "Rajiv" a book entitled "Rajiv"

Stative **ter-** verbs (see 1.266) can also occur in attributive position:

ujian tertulis written exam
wawancara terpisah separate interviews

Some more or less set expressions also occur attributive to a noun, such as **tak dikenal** 'unidentified' and **tak berdosa** 'innocent':

Rumahnya dirampas oleh dua orang tak dikenal.
His house was robbed by two unidentified people.
bayi tak berdosa
an innocent baby

An attributive verb can always be preceded by **yang**; in this case, however, it becomes a relative clause (see 3.98) and is capable of all the expansion that can occur in such a clause.

Relative clauses in the noun phrase

2.48 One way of adding information about a noun is by placing a clause within the noun phrase; this is called a relative clause. A relative clause is always preceded by **yang**. Relative clauses containing an adjective are discussed in section 2.45 and other relative clauses in 3.97ff.

Adjuncts in the noun phrase

2.49 Adjuncts are discussed in sections 2.165–215. Some adjuncts can occur within noun phrases, including adverbs of manner (see 2.166), prepositional phrases (see 2.118ff) and adjuncts of time (see 2.182).

Adverbs of manner which can occur in a noun phrase include **begini, semacam ini, seperti ini** 'like this', **begitu, demikian, sedemikian, seperti itu** 'like that':

bioskop seperti ini a cinema like this
pikiran begitu thoughts like that

A variety of prepositional phrases can occur in the noun phrase, of which the following are a few examples:

petani dari Aceh
a farmer from Aceh
dongeng tentang seorang haji
a story about a haji
uang untuk pondokan
money for boarding
pertemuan antara kedua pemimpin itu
a meeting between the two leaders
serangan dengan batu bata
an attack with bricks

Adjuncts of time are illustrated by the following:

pesta kemarin the party yesterday
pengumuman tadi malam the announcement last night

*Functions of **-nya** in the noun phrase*

2.50 This suffix has several functions within the noun phrase. It can function as a third person possessive pronoun (see 2.72), or as a ligature before a possessive noun (see 2.44).

It can also occur attached to the head noun, being translated 'the'. This can occur where the noun has not before been mentioned but is understood within the context of the utterance. Where a thing or person has recently been mentioned **itu** must be used in the repetition (see 2.9). The

different distributions of **itu** and **-nya** are shown by the following sentences: [1]

Ibu sudah memasak nasi. Nasi itu di lemari.
Mother has cooked rice. It is in the pantry. (literally: That rice is in the pantry.)
Kalau mau makan, nasinya di lemari.
If you want to eat, the rice is in the pantry.

In the first sentence above **nasi itu** 'that rice' refers to the rice already mentioned. (The English translation has 'it', which has no equivalent in Indonesian - see 2.73–4.) As **nasi** is not mentioned previously in the second example, **itu** is not possible. However, when reference is made to eating in Indonesia rice is understood, and thus **-nya** can occur. In the following examples **perawatnya** 'the nurse' and **airnya** 'the water' are possible because nurses are assumed in the context of a hospital and water is necessary for bathing:

Ia menilai pelayanan di rumah sakit cukup baik.
"Begitu dibel, perawatnya langsung datang", katanya.
He regards service in the hospital as very good. "No sooner is she called than the nurse immediately comes," he said.
Saya ingin mandi, tetapi airnya tidak ada.
I wanted to have a bath but there wasn't any water.

In the following examples the first sentence assumes a dog is kept in the house, the second presupposes a newspaper is delivered, while in the third it is understood that there is a way to the post office:

Apa anjingnya sudah diberi makan?
Has the dog been fed?
Di mana korannya?
Where is the newspaper?
Saya mau ke kantor pos tapi tidak tahu jalannya.
I want to go to the post office but I don't know the way.

Use of **-nya** in this way is optional; it tends to be used by Indonesians whose regional language has a similar construction.

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[1] This example is taken from McGarry and Sumaryono, book 3 (1974: 42).

Reflexive ***sendiri***

2.51 The reflexive **sendiri** 'self' occurs with nouns and pronouns (see 2.81) to emphasise or make clear who or what is being referred to:

Ibu sendiri yang memasak kue ini.
It was mother herself who made this cake.
Buku ini ditulis oleh Pak Bambang sendiri.
This book was written by Mr Bambang himself.

Sendiri is frequently, though optionally, separated from a subject noun phrase and placed after the verb or after the object of the verb (as also occurs in English):

Dia sendiri datang/Dia datang sendiri.
He came himself.
Kami sendiri membangun rumah ini/Kami membangun rumah ini sendiri.
We built this house ourselves.

Colloquially **sendiri** is often used after the verb instead of **sendirian, seorang diri** 'alone, by oneself' (see 2.178).

Following a possessive noun or pronoun **sendiri** translates 'own':

Sayur-sayuran ini dari kebun ibu sendiri.
These vegetables are from mother's own garden.
Budi harus membayar dari kantongnya sendiri.
Budi must pay from his own pocket.

Some people allow a possessive to be ellipted (see 4.111) before **sendiri** if the person it refers to has recently been mentioned. In the following example **-nya** is ellipted:

Nelayan merasa di laut seperti di rumah sendiri.
When they are at sea the fishermen feel as if in their own home.

Sendiri also occurs in reflexive phrases (see 2.162).

Lain *and* ***lainnya*** *in the noun phrase*

2.52 Following a noun both **lain** and **lainnya** translate 'other, another'. However, they have different meanings.

Lain means 'other' in a contrastive sense. That is, 'other, something or someone different':

Kita harus menghormati hak orang lain.
We must respect the rights of other people.

Lainnya means 'other' in the sense of 'something extra, something or someone in addition':

Selama di Amerika dia disertai isterinya, anak-anaknya dan beberapa orang lainnya.
While in America he was accompanied by his wife, his children and several other people.

Both **lain** and **lainnya** can be preceded by **yang**, in which case they are treated as relative clauses (see 3.98).

Attributive nouns in action noun phrases

2.53 Action nouns can be followed by attributive nouns, which do not occur in other types of noun phrase. While these attributives bear a relationship to possessive nouns they require special treatment. They differ from modifying nouns (2.37) in that they can themselves be full noun phrases and can be preceded by a preposition.

Action nouns usually have affixation **peN-...-an** (see 1.87) but some have **-an** (see 1.62) and some have other affixes or are affixless. An action noun always relates to the meaning of a transitive verb; thus **pembunuhan** 'killing, murder' relates to **membunuh** 'kill'.
The attributive noun can relate to the head noun as either actor or patient of the corresponding verb (for a discussion of 'actor' and 'patient' see section 3.17). The relationship may be ambiguous:

pembunuhan pemilik toko
the killing of the shop keeper

Here it is not clear (out of context) whether the shop keeper performs the action (the actor) or is affected by the action (the patient). Thus the above phrase may derive from either of the following constructions:

Pemilik toko membunuh.
The shop keeper killed (someone).

Pemilik toko dibunuh.
The shop keeper was killed (by someone).

Frequently the relationship is made clear by use of **oleh** 'by' before an actor attributive and by a preposition, usually **terhadap** 'of, toward', before a patient attributive:

pembunuhan oleh pemilik toko
the killing by the shop keeper
pembunuhan terhadap pemilik toko
the killing of the shop owner (by someone)

Attributives relating to the head noun as actor and patient can occur together, in which case the second requires a preposition. Their relative ordering is free:

penuduhan lurah oleh bupati
the accusation of the village head by the *bupati*
penuduhan lurah terhadap bupati
the village head's accusation of the *bupati*

The first phrase above relates to **Lurah dituduh oleh bupati** 'The village head was accused by the *bupati*', and the second relates to **Lurah menuduh bupati** 'The village head accused the *bupati*'.

A preposition may occur before each of the attributives:

pemukulan terhadap pengemudi sepeda motor oleh seorang polisi
the beating of a motor cyclist by a policeman

The following examples illustrate occurrence of attributive nouns with action nouns which do not have affix **peN-...-an**:

kecaman keras negara-negara itu terhadap Iran
the strong criticism by those countries of Iran
serangan oleh seorang gerilya
an attack by a guerrilla
eksploitasi negara-negara kaya terhadap negara-negara miskin
exploitation by wealthy countries of poor countries

Several other prepositions can replace **terhadap** as marker of the patient attributive, of which **atas** is the most frequent. **Dari** also occurs:

pemboman atas kota itu
the bombing of that city
pengangkutan olehnya dari barang ini
the transporting by him of these goods

Bahwa and supaya/agar complements in noun phrases

2.54 Some nouns can take a complement introduced by **bahwa** 'that' (see 3.108) or **supaya/agar** '(so) that' (see 3.119):

laporan-laporan bahwa kegiatan tersebut telah berhenti
reports that those activities have ceased
seruan agar perdamaian tercipta
an appeal that peace be achieved

Such complements occur with nouns which correspond to verbs which can take the same complements. Thus the phrase **laporan bahwa...** 'the report that...' is based on **(Dia) melaporkan bahwa...** '(He) reported that...'; the phrase **seruan agar ...** 'an appeal (so) that ...' is based on **(Dia) berseru agar ...** '(He) appealed that ...'.

Word order within the noun phrase

2.55 This discussion is restricted to the relative ordering of certain constituents of the noun phrase which occur after the head noun: modifying nouns, adjectives, possessors, relative clauses, attributive nouns. and demonstratives.

2.56 A modifying noun directly follows the head, preceding all other post-head elements including adjectives and possessors:

toko buku besar
a big book shop
guru bahasa saya
my language teacher

2.57 A possessor follows an adjective:

sikap tegas bapak
father's firm attitude
galangan kapal terbesar Korea Selatan
South Korea's largest shipyard

2.58 Attributive nouns in action noun phrases also follow adjectives:

kecaman keras negara-negara itu terhadap Iran
the harsh criticism of Iran by those countries

2.59 Relative clauses follow modifying nouns, adjectives and possessors:

sandiwara baru Pak Djoko yang dipentaskan tadi malam
Mr Djoko's new play which was staged last night

An adjective preceded by **yang** is a relative clause (see 3.98). In this case it follows a possessor, whereas without **yang** it precedes the possessor, as in 2.57:

sikap bapak yang tegas
father's firm attitude

2.60 The demonstratives follow all other constituents of the phrase. In the following example the demonstrative follows an adjective and possessor:

baju merah saya ini
this red shirt of mine

The presence of a demonstrative thus marks the end of a noun phrase. The first construction below is a noun phrase ending in **itu**, the second is a clause in which the subject noun phrase ends in **itu** and is followed by an adjective predicate, the third construction is also a clause in which the subject is **itu** (see 2.65) and the predicate is a noun phrase:

rumah besar itu
that big house
Rumah itu besar.
That house is big.
Itu rumah besar.
That is a big house.

Structural ambiguity may occur if there is more than one noun preceding a demonstrative. In the following phrase **nelayan** 'fisherman' is either a modifying noun describing what sort of house is being referred to, in which case **ini** refers to the head word **rumah** 'house' (because a modifying noun

cannot usually be the head of a phrase – see 2.37ff), or it is a possessor, specifying the owner of the house, in which case **ini** refers to **nelayan**:

rumah nelayan ini
this fisherman's house
or the house of this fisherman

In the following example **itu** may refer to the head word, **tuduhan itu** 'those charges', or to the attributive, **Robert itu** 'that (person) Robert' (demonstratives can follow proper nouns – see 2.7):

tuduhan terhadap Robert itu
those charges against Robert
or the charges against that (person) Robert

Ambiguity may result when a demonstrative follows a relative clause ending in a noun; the demonstrative may refer to the head word or it may be part of the noun phrase within the relative clause, referring to the final noun of the relative clause. Thus the following example may be interpreted as containing **anak ... itu** 'that child' or **... sepeda itu** 'that bicycle':

Anak yang naik sepeda itu tinggal dekat saya.
That child riding a bike lives near me.
or The child riding that bike lives near me.

Although it is widely regarded as unacceptable, **itu** sometimes occurs before a relative clause in journalistic style, especially if the relative clause is long. Most people would place **itu** at the end of the subject noun phrase, after **aktivis**, in the following sentence:

Kapal carteran itu, yang mengangkut para pelajar dan kaum aktivis, kembali menuju Darwin.
The charter boat, which was transporting the students and activists, turned back to Darwin.

Noun phrases in apposition

2.61 When two noun phrases occur one after the other and refer to the same person or thing they are in apposition. The second noun phrase gives further information about the

first, and is called the defining appositional phrase. The two phrases are usually separated in writing by a comma and in speech by a slight pause between them. In the first example below **Ola** and **suaminya** 'her husband' are two noun phrases referring to the same person; the second gives information about the first:

Dia menantikan Ola, suaminya.
She awaited Ola, her husband.
Ini namanya Monas, Monumen Nasional.
This is called Monas, the National Monument.
Pertunjukan lain adalah ketoprak, sandiwara tradisional dengan cerita dari sejarah dan dongeng-dongeng.
Another show is the *ketoprak*, a traditional play with stories from history and legend.

The defining appositional phrase can itself be followed by a defining phrase. In the following example the defining phrase gives information about **Pak Trimo**. The defining phrase itself is followed by a defining phrase giving information about **Banyusumurup**:

Ini Pak Trimo, seorang penduduk di Banyusumurup, sebuah desa di lereng Gunung Kidul.
This is Mr Trimo, a resident of Banyusumurup, a village on the slope of Mount Kidul.

The defining noun phrase can sometimes occur before the main phrase. In this case a comma is not placed between the two in writing:

Suaminya Ola masih belum pulang.
Her husband Ola still hadn't returned home.
Petenis Amerika Agassi maju ke perempat final.
The American tennis player Agassi advanced to the quarter final.

2.62 The apposition can be made explicit by occurrence of **ya'itu** or **yakni** 'that is' before the defining noun phrase:

Camat wilayah itu, yakni Pak Sitepu, berkerabat dengan saya.
The district *camat*, that is Mr Sitepu, was a relative of mine.
Di sebelah barat Parangtritis terdapat sebuah tempat wisata lagi, ya'itu Pantai Samas.

To the west of Parangtritis is another tourist spot, that is Samas Beach.

2.63 A second type of apposition requires an adjunct before the second noun phrase. The second phrase then exemplifies the first in some way, as specified by the adjunct. Adjuncts which can precede the second noun phrase include:

misalnya, umpamanya for example
terutama especially
termasuk including
seperti such as

Beberapa pengarang, misalnya Umar Kayam, pernah memberi kuliah di sana.
Several writers, for instance Umar Kayam, have given lectures there.
Makam Rara Mendut dan Pranacitra ramai diziarahi orang, terutama para pedagang.
The graves of Rara Mendut and Pranacitra are visited by large numbers of people, especially merchants.
Brigjen. Sabur kemudian datang ke Halim dan melaporkan tewasnya para jenderal, termasuk A. Yani.
Brigadier General Sabur then came to Halim and reported the deaths of the generals, including A. Yani.
Ide-idenya diperkenalkan di kota-kota besar, seperti Jakarta, Bandung, Surabaya dan Yogyakarta.
His ideas were introduced in the large cities, such as Jakarta, Bandung, Surabaya and Yogyakarta.

PRONOUNS AND PRONOUN PHRASES

2.64 A pronoun stands for a noun when it is clear who or what is being spoken about. Four types of pronoun are discussed here: demonstrative pronouns, personal pronouns, indefinite pronouns and number pronouns. Locative pronouns are mentioned in section 2.119, the reflexive pronoun in section 2.162 and interrogative pronouns in section 4.15.

Demonstrative pronouns

2.65 The demonstratives **ini** 'this' and **itu** 'that' (see 2.7) can occur alone as demonstrative pronouns. In the following examples they occur as subject of a clause:

Ini besar.
This is big.
Itu teman saya.
That is my friend.

Personal pronouns

2.66 Pronouns which refer to people are called personal pronouns. These can occur as heads of personal pronoun phrases (see 2.75–81).

Personal pronouns reflect social relations between people far more than do other parts of the language and a brief discussion of their social role is required.

Only a limited number of words are purely pronominal. The full forms of these are:

	first		second	third
single	**saya, aku**		**engkau, kamu, kau, anda**	**ia, dia, beliau**
plural	**kita**	**kami**	**kalian**	**mereka**
	incl.	excl.		

The first singular forms both mean 'I' but differ in social distribution, as discussed below. The inclusive first plural **kita** means 'we' where the person being spoken to is included, that is, 'I and you', while the exclusive first plural **kami** means 'we' where the person being spoken to is excluded, that is, 'I and others but not you'. The second person pronouns are all restricted in social usage. However, the third person forms are socially neutral except **beliau** 'he, she (respectful)'.

Pronouns **aku** 'I' and **engkau, kau, kamu** 'you singular' and **kalian** 'you plural' (a recently created form not used by all speakers) are intimate forms, used to children and between equals who have a close relationship with each other. They are sometimes used to younger adults, although this always

conveys a suggestion of social superiority on the part of the speaker.

The pronouns **saya** 'I' and **anda** 'you' are often said to be neutral in social connotation. This is largely true of **saya**, although its use instead of **aku** usually indicates that an intimate relationship does not exist. However, **anda** conveys social information, as discussed below.

The pronouns **kita** 'we (inclusive)', **kami** 'we (exclusive)', **ia**, **dia** 'he, she', and **mereka** 'they' are socially neutral. Of the third person pronouns only **beliau** 'he, she' carries social connotation, referring to people who are held in high respect.

It is among second person pronouns, those used for the person being addressed, that most variety occurs.

Anda, an artificial creation introduced in the 1950s, was intended as a neutral form, equivalent to English 'you'. However, the mere fact that it does not convey the intimacy of **engkau**, **kau** and **kamu**, nor indicate a kin relationship, meant that it was immediately confined to impersonal situations, such as addressing strangers of the same age as or younger than the speaker. It is not widely used in addressing individuals and, because it does not convey respect, cannot be used by a junior to a senior. As an impersonal form it is most frequently used in advertisements and public announcements, and in addressing people in gatherings such as conferences. The first example below is a notice in aeroplanes, while the second is taken from an advertisement:

Kenakan sabuk pengaman selama anda duduk.
Fasten your safety belt while you are seated.
Apakah mesin fotokopi anda mencemari lingkungan?
Does your photocopier pollute the environment?

Pronoun substitutes

2.67 Pronoun substitutes are personal names and kinship terms used instead of pronouns. **Saudara** 'sibling or relative of the same generation', like **anda**, is used widely for 'you' to people of the speaker's own generation or younger and has an impersonal tone, generally being used towards people with

whom the speaker is not well acquainted. To females **saudari** (see 1.42) is sometimes used.

The other pronoun substitutes can mean either 'I' or 'you'. Most common are **bapak** 'father' and **ibu** 'mother'. These are respectful forms used to older people or to any adult of marriagable age:

Bapak tinggal di sini?
Do you live here? (said to an older man)
Apa ini anak ibu?
Is this your child? (said to an older woman)

Like all pronoun substitutes, these terms are basically nouns, used for referring to a third person. Thus the two sentences above literally mean 'Does father live here?' and 'Is this mother's child?' and can also be used in reference to a third person, context making clear which is meant.

The abbreviated forms **pak** and **bu** cannot be used alone as pronoun substitutes, that is, they cannot mean 'you', occurring only as vocatives (see 4.109) in most people's usage. However, in combination with a name they can be used as terms for reference to a third person or in addressing a second person, that is as pronoun substitutes:

Pak Hasan mau makan sekarang?
Do you want to eat now, Mr Hasan?

The above sentence could also be a question about a third person, 'Does Mr Hasan want to eat now?'

Other abbreviated kinship terms can also combine with names and be used in addressing another person: **Mas Tomo** 'older brother Tomo', **Mbak Yuli** 'older sister Yuli', **Dik Muji** 'younger brother Muji'. There is a considerable amount of regional variation in the use of such terms.

Tuan 'sir' and **nyonya** 'madam' (to a married woman) have a much more limited role in modern Indonesian than in the past but are still used by some people, especially to foreigners. Like **pak** and **ibu** they can also be used with personal names.

As pronoun substitutes **bapak** and **ibu** can also mean 'I'. Here they are restricted to use by older people to younger people, whether their own children or not:

Ibu mau ke pasar.
I'm going to the market. (said by a woman to someone younger)
Kasi pada bapak!
Give it to me! (said by a man to a younger person)

Personal names are also commonly used as substitutes for 'I' and 'you'. This is particularly common among children, as a substitute for **aku** and **kamu**:

Dinah mau ikut.
I want to come along. (said by a girl named Dinah)
Ini untuk Dinah.
This is for you. (said to a girl named Dinah)

2.68 When there is uncertainty about how a person should be addressed Indonesians have a number of strategies for avoiding giving offence. They may use a more polite form than is necessary, avoid using a pronoun altogether, or use third person **-nya**. The last two possibilities are illustrated:

Tinggal di mana?
Where do (you) live?
Di mana rumahnya?
Where do you live? (literally: Where is his/her house?)

2.69 The above discussion of pronouns and pronoun substitutes is far from exhaustive. Many other forms occur, some confined to or identified with particular regional usage. These include Jakartanese **gua**, **gue** 'I' and **lu** 'you', and literary forms such as **hamba** 'I'. Among some people **om** 'uncle' and **tante** 'aunt' occur commonly as pronoun substitutes for older people and **opa** 'grandfather' and **oma** 'grandmother' for people approximately of the same age as the speaker's grandparents.

Among some people the distinction between **kita** and **kami** is not always maintained. In some regional varieties **kita** is used for 'I'.

*Third person pronouns **dia** and **ia***

2.70 Third person singular **ia** and **dia** both mean 'he, she'. **Dia** can occur in all positions. However, **ia** is restricted in occurrence to pre-verbal position. That is, it can be used instead of **dia** when it occurs before a verb, either as subject, in either an active or passive sentence, or as agent in a type two passive (see 3.28). In all other positions, including object or agent following a verb, following a preposition, as predicate and as a possessive, only **dia** can occur (although **-nya** can occur instead in some of these positions – see 2.71):

Dia/ia akan menolong kami.
He will help us.
makanan yang sudah dia/ia pesan
the food he has ordered
makanan yang sudah dipesan (oleh) dia
the food which he has ordered
Kami akan menolong dia.
We will help her.
Berikan buku ini kepada dia.
Give this book to her.
Ini buku dia.
This is her book.
Itu bukan dia.
That isn't him.

The rule that **ia** cannot occur after the verb does not apply in cases where as subject it follows the verb as a result of change from standard word order (see 3.42):

Melihat raksasa itu datang, bersembunyilah ia ke balik batu besar.
Seeing the giant coming, he hid behind a large rock.
(Standard word order: **Ia bersembunyi...**)
Harus pergikah ia?
Must she go? (Standard word order: **Ia harus pergi?**)

Also **ia** can occur as object of the verb if it is also the subject of a complement (see 3.76); in this case its role as subject of the following complement takes precedence over its role as object of the preceding verb. **Dia** and **-nya** can occur instead of **ia**:

Saya menganggapnya/dia/ia bodoh.
I consider him stupid.
Sikap inilah yang menyebabkan ia dijuluki "nyinyir".
It was this trait which caused him to be nicknamed "nagger".

In older Malay **dia** was an inflected form of **ia**, occurring in those positions in which only **dia** can occur in modern Indonesian. First and second person equivalents **daku** 'I' and **dikau** 'you' might still occasionally be seen in older literature but are lost from the modern language:

Suaranya yang merdu membenamkan daku ke satu fantasi yang indah dan ajaib.
Her melodious voice enveloped me in a beautiful and mysterious fantasy.

Bound forms of pronouns

2.71 The singular pronouns **aku**, **engkau** and **kamu**, and **dia** have bound variants in certain situations. The bound forms are:

	prefixed	suffixed
first	**ku-**	**-ku**
second	**kau-**	**-mu**
third		**-nya**

The suffixed forms occur as objects of active verbs:

Narti menungguku/mu/nya.
Narti is waiting for me/you/him.

The suffixed forms can only occur if the verb has prefix **meN-**; hence they cannot occur with those transitive verbs such as **makan** 'eat' which do not have the prefix (see 1.186). In this case full pronouns **aku**, **kamu** and **dia** must be used or, if a non-human is referred to, either the noun must be repeated or ellipsis (see 4.113) occurs. The first sentence below contains unprefixed **makan** 'eat', while the second contains the same verb with prefix **meN-**:

Dia mengambil kue itu lalu makan.
He took the cake and ate [it].
Dia mengambil kue itu lalu memakannya.
He took the cake and ate it.

Suffixed forms also cannot occur where **meN-** is dropped in colloquial usage or in certain constructions such as imperatives (see 4.39). Nor can they occur as complements. Thus **-nya** can occur as object of **mempelajari** 'study': **mempelajarinya** 'study it', but not as complement of **belajar** 'study' (see 3.63).

The third person suffixed form occurs as agent of a passive verb in passive type one (see 3.27):

Narti ditunggunya.
He is waiting for Narti.

The prefixed forms occur as agents of passive verbs in passive type two (see 3.28). There is no third person form:

Buku ini sudah kubaca.
I have read this book.
Buku ini sudah kaubaca.
You have read this book.

Bound forms can occur as possessives:

rumahku my house
mobilmu your car
bukunya her book

They also follow some prepositions. Most prepositions (see 2.118ff) can only be followed by full forms of the pronouns: **seperti aku** 'like me', **tentang kamu** 'about you', **kecuali dia** 'except him', **dari dia** 'from her'. Some, like **kepada** 'to', allow bound pronouns to follow: **kepadaku** 'to me', **kepadamu** 'to you', **kepadanya** 'to him'. Other prepositions allowing suffixed pronouns include: **pada** 'at, to', **daripada** 'than; from', **bagi** 'for', **buat** 'for', **untuk** 'for', **bersama** 'together with', **dengan** 'with', **terhadap** 'towards', **oleh** 'by', **dari** 'than'.

In all situations in which the bound forms can occur corresponding free forms are also possible:

Buku ini sudah aku/engkau baca.
I/you have read this book.
Ini pena aku/kamu/dia.
This is my/your/his pen.
Narti menunggu aku/kamu/dia.

Narti is waiting for me/you/him.

Third person **-nya** can be plural, meaning 'they', as well as singular (this is not the case with **dia/ia**):

Mahasiswa-mahasiswa ini akan melanjutkan pendidikannya di luar negeri.
These students will continue their education overseas.
Mereka akan membuat rencana dan segala sesuatu akan diaturnya sesuai dengan rencana itu.
They will make a plan and they will organise everything in accordance with that plan.

Pronouns indicating possession

2.72 Indicating possession pronouns must follow a noun; phrasal forms corresponding to 'mine', 'his', and so on, do not occur. This may require repetition of a noun:

Mobil ini mobil saya.
This car is mine.

To avoid repetition the first occurrence of the noun is usually omitted. Alternatively the possessive pronoun may be attached to a form like **kepunyaan** 'possession', **milik** 'property':

Ini mobil saya.
This is my car.
Mobil ini kepunyaan saya.
This car is mine (my possession).

As mentioned in section 2.71, singular pronouns can occur in their free or bound (suffixed) form to mark possession.

Pronouns referring to non-humans

2.73 Most speakers use third person pronouns **dia/ia** and **mereka** only to refer to humans. The bound form **-nya** can refer to non-human animate and inanimate nouns, both single and plural:

Apa namanya?
What's its name?/What are their names?
Saya sudah membacanya.
I've read it/them.

2.74 In contexts where **-nya** cannot occur there is usually nothing corresponding to English 'it'. This is further discussed in section 4.113. In the translations of the following examples 'it' is placed in square brackets where there is no equivalent in Indonesian:

Hebat, bukan?
[It's] amazing, isn't it?
Dia meminyaki rambutnya, supaya mengkilat.
She oiled her hair so that [it] shone.
Surat ini penting. Baca!
This letter is important. Read [it]!

Despite the fact that it is unacceptable to many speakers, there is an increasing tendency, especially in journalistic style, for **ia** to mean 'it':

"Australia berada dalam situasi sulit bila ia kalah", katanya.
"Australia will be in a difficult situation if it loses", he said.
Peliharalah taman ini. Ia milik anda.
Look after this park. It is your property.

The use of **mereka** to refer to non-humans is rare but does occur and is becoming increasingly common in journalistic style. In the first example below it refers to horses: [2]

Ia datangi dua ekor yang lain, membelai punggung mereka masing-masing...
She approached two others, stroking the backs of each of them.
Bakteri ternyata makhluk yang cukup cerdik. Mereka tak menyerang tubuh seenaknya, melainkan memilih sasaran tertentu.
Bacteria are clearly cunning creatures. They do not attack the body randomly but choose specific targets.

Personal pronoun phrases

2.75 Personal pronoun phrases contain a limited number of constituents, including those discussed below. In general suffixed pronouns can occur with the same phrase elements as

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2 The first example is from Toer (1980: 28). Kaswanti Purwo (1984: 114) rejects the use of **mereka** to refer to non-human nouns.

free pronouns. Prefixed pronouns cannot act as phrase heads.

Demonstratives

2.76 The demonstrative **ini** gives emphasis to first person pronouns:

Kau kira saya ini pelayanmu?
Do you think I am your servant?

With third person **itu** can occur to indicate location or previous mention:

mereka itu
they (over there) or they (who have been mentioned)

Relative clauses in personal pronoun phrases

2.77 Adjectives must be preceded by **yang** in pronoun phrases. They are thus relative clauses (see 3.98):

saya yang kecil ini I who am small
kamu yang pandai you who are clever

Apart from adjectives, relative clauses occur only after **mereka**. In this case the pronoun acts like **orang**, meaning 'people who..., those who...':

mereka yang tetap tinggal di desa
those who continue to live in the village
mereka yang tidak hadir
those who are not present

Numbers in pronoun phrases

2.78 A limited number of definite and indefinite numbers are the only quantifiers which occur with personal pronouns.

2.79 Numbers with prefix **ber-** (see 1.158) are the only definite numbers which can accompany pronouns. Following a pronoun they indicate a group, having the same meaning as collective numbers with **ke-** preceding a noun (see 2.17):

mereka berdua
both of them
Kita bertiga menghadap kepala sekolah.
The three of us appeared before the school principal.

2.80 Several indefinite numbers (see 2.113) can occur with pronouns, including **semua** 'all', **sekalian** 'all', **masing-masing** 'each'. Although they precede nouns (see 2.19), indefinite numbers follow pronouns:

Mereka masing-masing memperoleh sebidang tanah.
They each received a plot of land.
Kami semua harus membuka jalan dahulu.
All of us must clear a road first.

The indefinite number **sekalian** is sometimes used as a plural indicator for second person: **saudara/anda/engkau sekalian** 'you (plural)'. However, it also occurs with other pronouns: **mereka sekalian** 'all of them'.

*Reflexive **sendiri***

2.81 This functions as with nouns (see 2.51):

Ini rumahku sendiri.
This is my own house.

As with nouns, **sendiri** can be separated from a pronoun subject:

Kamu sendiri harus pergi/Kamu harus pergi sendiri.
You must go yourself.

Apposition

2.82 A pronoun can be in apposition (see 2.61) with a noun phrase:

kami, bangsa Indonesia
we, the people of Indonesia

Indefinite pronouns

2.83 These indicate that a person or thing is being spoken about without a particular person or thing being identified.

2.84 The pronouns **seseorang** and **sesuatu** correspond to English 'someone' and 'something' respectively:

Saya akan menyuruh seseorang menjemput mereka.
I'll tell someone to meet them.
Dia makan sesuatu.
He ate something.

The phrase **segala sesuatu** 'everything' refers to all the things being discussed without them being named individually:

Dia membicarakan segala sesuatu.
He discussed everything.

Sesuata and **segala sesuatu** can take a relative clause (see 3.98):

Ada sesuatu yang kurang baik.
There is something which isn't good.
Segala sesuatu yang dikatakannya selalu menarik.
Everything he says is always interesting.

2.85 Corresponding to English indefinite pronouns beginning with 'any' are forms consisting of a question word (see 4.14) followed by **saja**. The interrogative **mana** follows a locative preposition (see 2.119) or a noun:

siapa saja anyone
apa saja anything
di/ke/dari mana saja (at/to/from) anywhere
mana saja any
kapan saja any time
berapa saja any amount

Siapa saja boleh ikut.
Anyone can come along.
Kamu boleh minum apa saja.
You can drink anything.
Taruh barang itu di mana saja.
Put those things anywhere.
Anda bisa bepergian ke mana saja.
You can travel anywhere.
Kalau libur kami menginap di hotel mana saja.
When on holidays we stay in any hotel at all.
Singgah di rumah kapan saja.
Call in any time at all.
Ambil berapa saja.
Take any amount you like.

All the above interrogatives except **kapan** and **berapa** can be followed by **pun** instead of **saja**:

Sekarang koran bisa dibungkam untuk apa pun.
Now a newspaper can be silenced for anything.

Saya tidak bisa menerima pembredelan oleh siapa pun dan di mana pun.
I cannot accept banning by anyone anywhere.

Many people write **pun** attached to the interrogative: **siapapun** and so on.

2.86 The forms **apa pun/apa saja** and **mana pun/mana saja** occur in a noun phrase after a negated predicate instead of the reduplicated forms discussed in 2.89:
Mereka tidak memberi informasi apa pun.
They didn't give any information at all.
Kami tidak berkunjung ke desa mana saja.
We didn't visit any village at all.

Forms with **saja** also occur in questions but with a different meaning (see 4.22).

2.87 Indefinite pronouns can be followed by a relative clause (see 2.98) and almost invariably are if they occur in subject position:
Siapa pun yang berbuat onar akan ditindak.
Anyone who causes trouble will be acted against.
Apa saja yang diucapkannya selalu benar.
Whatever he states is always correct.

2.88 Alternative to **siapa saja** and **apa saja**, though more formal, are the forms **barang siapa** 'anyone' and **barang apa** 'anything'. These only occur as subjects of a clause and are frequently followed by a relatived clause:
Barang siapa yang bersalah harus dihukum.
Anyone who is guilty must be punished.
Barang apa yang diceritakannya selalu benar.
Anything she said was always true.

2.89 Reduplicated forms of **siapa, apa, mana** have the same meanings as the forms mentioned in section 2.85 but follow a negated predicate (reduplicated **mana** can also follow a positive predicate – see 2.90):
Saya tidak bertemu dengan siapa-siapa.
I didn't meet anyone.

Dia tidak tahu apa-apa.
He doesn't know anything.
Saya tidak pergi ke mana-mana.
I didn't go anywhere.

If the indefinite pronoun occurs in a noun phrase following a negated predicate then a form with **saja** or **pun** is more likely to occur (see examples in 2.86).

If **siapa-siapa** and **apa-apa** occur as predicates they are negated by **bukan**:
Dalam sumber alam Taiwan bukan apa-apa dibandingkan dengan Indonesia.
In natural resources Taiwan is nothing compared with Indonesia.

2.90 The reduplicated form **(di/ke/dari) mana-mana** can also occur after a positive predicate, meaning '(at/to/from) everywhere':
Pengungsi itu datang dari mana-mana.
The refugees came from everywhere.

2.91 The indefinite pronouns **siapa-siapa** and **apa-apa** must follow a negated predicate, as mentioned in 2.89. They therefore cannot occur in subject position. Instead the following forms occur:
tidak seorangpun no one
tidak satupun nothing

This distribution of the forms is partly similar to that of forms with 'not ... any(one)' and 'no (one)' in English, the difference being illustrated by the first two sentences below:
Saya tidak mengenal siapa-siapa di sini.
I don't know anyone here.
Tidak seorangpun mengenal saya di sini.
No one knows me here.
Tidak seorangpun tersenyum kepadanya.
No one smiled at him.
Tak satupun menarik perhatiannya.
Nothing interested her.

The forms **tidak seorangpun** and **tidak satupun** can precede a noun to mean 'not a single'; **tidak satupun** can occur with both human and non-human nouns:

Tidak seorangpun prajurit yang cedera.
Not a single soldier was injured.
Tidak satupun pengadilan yang akan menghukum dia.
Not a single court will sentence him.

Such phrases can also follow a negated verb; in this case **tidak** does not occur with the pronoun. In the following example the verb **ada** 'exist' is negated by **belum**:

Belum ada satupun desainer Indonesia yang mampu merancang padang golf bertaraf internasional.
There is not yet a single Indonesian designer who can design an international class golf course.

2.92 Other classifiers can replace **orang** in **tidak seorangpun** (see 2.91) as appropriate. Thus **pucuk**, the classifier for guns (see 2.22), can occur with **senapan**:

Tak sepucukpun senapan yang meletus.
Not a single gun went off.

Number pronouns

2.93 These are based on several types of definite and indefinite numbers.

2.94 Collective numbers with prefix **ke-**, meaning 'both', 'all three' and so on (see 1.153), can take suffix **-nya** to form pronouns. These forms can also have a reduplicated base, with or without **ke-**, thus **keduanya, kedua-duanya, dua-duanya** 'both of them, either of them', **ketiganya, ketiga-tiganya, tiga-tiganya** 'all three of them':

Arti kedua kata itu sama; anda dapat mempergunakan kedua-duanya.
The meanings of those two words are the same; you can use either of them.

In combination with a negative they are translated 'neither of them, none of them, not any of them':

Saya tidak suka kedua-duanya/dua-duanya/keduanya.

I don't like either of them.
Ini selokan atau jalan? - **Bukan dua-duanya.**
Is this a gutter or a road? - (It is) neither.

These forms can occur as subjects in topic-comment constructions (see 3.90).

2.95 Several indefinite numbers (see 2.113) can occur as pronouns, in which case they take suffix **-nya**. These include:
semuanya all of them
segalanya all of them
seluruhnya all of it, the whole

Tidak semuanya meninggal.
Not all of them died.

These forms can occur as subjects in topic-comment constructions (see 3.90).

2.96 **Masing-masing** can occur as a number pronoun meaning 'each of them'; it does not take **-nya**:
Kedua kota itu hampir sama besarnya. Masing-masing berpenduduk sekitar empat ratus ribu orang.
Those two cities are almost the same size. Each of them has a population of about four hundred thousand people.

ADJECTIVES AND ADJECTIVE PHRASES

2.97 An adjective phrase is a sequence of words which functions in the same way as an adjective; that is, it occurs in the same positions in a clause as a single adjective. It always contains an adjective as its head. Adjectives are discussed in section 2.98. The other major components of adjective phrases are discussed in 2.99–105.

Adjectives

2.98 An adjective is a word which describes a noun; it tells something about a person or thing, such as its shape or size (**besar** 'big', **bulat** 'round', **gemuk** 'fat'), colour (**hijau** 'green',

hitam 'black'), condition (**bersih** 'clean', **kotor** 'dirty', **rusak** 'broken') or other characteristics (**baik** 'good', **pandai** 'clever', **senang** 'happy', **cantik** 'pretty', **hati-hati** 'careful').

Two adjectives may form a compound (see 1.31). The order of the two adjectives in such compounds is fixed; the second word usually acts to strengthen the meaning of the first word, as in **lemah lembut** 'gentle'.

A compound may also consist of an adjective and a following noun. Such forms are idiomatic, such as **buta huruf** 'illiterate', **keras kepala** 'stubborn', **panjang tangan** 'having a tendency to steal'.

A compound may consist of a colour term and a following noun or adjective which makes it more specific: **merah tua** 'dark red', **biru muda** 'light blue', **hijau daun** 'leaf green', **kuning gading** 'ivory yellow'.

Two adjectives may be juxtaposed to form a kind of coordination, without **dan** 'and' occurring between them. The order of adjectives in such pairs is fixed, such as **tinggi kurus** 'tall and thin', **tegap gesit** 'firm and agile':

Perawakannya tinggi langsing, pembawaannya tegap gesit.
Her figure was tall and slender, her bearing firm and agile.

Other pairs like this include **hitam manis** 'dark and attractive', **tinggi tegap** 'tall and strong', **halus mulus** 'fine and smooth', **cerdas tangkas** 'intelligent and quick-witted'.

Juxtaposed adjectives may also indicate alternatives, **atau** 'or' being omitted between them, such as **panjang pendek** 'long or short', **baik buruk** 'good or bad'. Such pairs, written with a hyphen and followed by **-nya**, are frequently nominalised (see 3.139).

A number of verbs can act as adjectives, being able to occur with many of the components of the adjective phrase, such as modifying adverbs, **lebih** 'more', and **paling** 'most'. These include **membosankan** 'boring' and similar forms (see 1.194),

menarik 'attractive', and many of the verbs with prefix **ber-** based on nouns (see 1.169ff), such as **berbahaya** 'dangerous', **berhasil** 'successful', **berguna** 'useful'. The indefinite numbers **banyak** 'much' and **sedikit** 'a little' can also function in the same way (see examples in 2.113).

Adjective phrases

2.99 Adjectives act as heads of a variety of different phrase structures. Some of the important components of adjective phrases are discussed in the following sections. Not all adjectives can occur with all the phrase elements discussed; some subclasses of adjective are restricted in the elements with which they can co-occur.

Modifying adverbs

2.100 The adjective can be preceded by one of a number of modifying adverbs. These show the amount or intensity of the quality indicated by the adjective. These include:

sangat, amat very
terlalu, terlampau too
sungguh really, truly
cukup enough
relatif relatively
serba completely
agak rather
makin, semakin, kian, tambah, bertambah increasingly
begitu, demikian, sedemikian so, like that
begini so, like this

Beban ini sungguh berat.
This load is truly heavy.
Tingkat radiasi relatif tinggi.
The radiation level is relatively high.
Iran secara militer sudah makin kuat.
Militarily Iran has become increasingly strong.
Mengapa saudara demikian lelah?
Why are you so tired?

A number of modifying adverbs follow the adjective, including:

sekali very

belaka entirely, completely
sama sekali entirely
benar really

Janjinya palsu belaka.
His promises are completely false.
Urusannya sudah beres sama sekali.
His affairs are entirely in order.

The adverb **sedikit** 'a little' can precede or follow the adjective:
sedikit pusing/pusing sedikit
a little dizzy

A few modifying adverbs can co-occur for emphasis. The commonest combinations are **amat sangat** 'exceedingly', **sangat ... sekali** 'exceedingly', **agak ... sedikit** 'somewhat':
Daging ini agak mahal sedikit.
This meat is somewhat expensive.
Dia amat sangat kaya.
He is extremely rich.

Some of the modifying adverbs, including **cukup** 'enough' and **terlalu** 'too', can cooccur with a phrase beginning with **untuk**, **bagi** or **buat** 'for' (see 2.105).

When the adjective phrase occurs as a predicate (see 3.9) with **tidak** most speakers replace **sekali** 'very' by **begitu** 'so':
Rumahnya tidak begitu besar.
His house isn't very big.

Modifying adverbs like **makin** commonly occur in correlative structures, such as:
Ali makin besar makin sombong.
The older Ali gets the more arrogant he becomes.

These constructions are discussed in section 4.90.

Comparative phrases

2.101 The comparative adjective phrase is formed by placing **lebih** 'more' or **kurang** 'less' before the adjective: **lebih besar** 'bigger', **lebih jelas** 'clearer', **lebih indah** 'more beautiful', **kurang mahal** 'less expensive':

Saya minta air yang kurang panas.
Could I have water which isn't so hot.

The major expansion of the comparative phrase is with **dari** or **daripada** 'than' followed by a noun phrase indicating the person or thing with which comparison is being made[3]:

Dia lebih tinggi dari saya.
He is taller than me.
Mobil Jepang kurang mahal daripada mobil Amerika.
Japanese cars are less expensive than American cars.

Lebih can itself be preceded by a number of modifiers, including **jauh** 'far', **sedikit** 'a little', a number followed by **kali** 'times' (see 2.197), or a noun indicating distance, weight or measure:

Rumah ini jauh lebih mahal dari rumah itu.
This house is far more expensive than that one.
Situasi hari Minggu sedikit lebih tenang.
The situation on Sunday was a little calmer.
Kota ini dua puluh kali lebih besar.
This town is twenty times bigger.
Jalan ini tiga meter lebih lebar daripada jalan-jalan lain.
This road is three meters wider than the other roads.

Kurang can be replaced by **kalah**. Preceded by a negative only **kalah** can occur:

Tuti kurang/kalah cantik.
Tuti is less pretty.
"Siapa bilang?" bantah saya, tak kalah keras.
"Who said so?" I protested, no less harshly.

When **kalah** occurs **dari(pada)** can be replaced by **dengan**:

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3 Verhaar (1988: 56) says **dari** is more colloquial than **daripada** 'but not distinctly substandard' while *Tata Bahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia* (1988: 216) says **dari** is non-standard. Chaer (1988: 163) advises against use of **dari** in comparative constructions. However, while this stand is taken by some grammarians it is not generally accepted and **dari** is by far the more frequent of the two in both formal and informal Indonesian.

Tulisan Subagio tidak kalah blak-blakan dengan tulisan orang Australia yang mana pun.
Subagio's writing is no less frank than that of any Australian.

Superlative phrases

2.102 These are formed by placing **paling** 'most' or prefix **ter-** before the adjective: **paling kaya, terkaya** 'richest', **paling tinggi, tertinggi** 'highest'.

Many people allow prefix **ter-** only with two syllable adjectives; it cannot occur with longer adjectives, compounds or verbs acting adjectivally. Thus it cannot replace **paling** in **paling berani** 'bravest', **paling berguna** 'most useful', **paling menyenangkan** 'most pleasing', **paling keras kepala** 'most obstinate'. The exception are a few words which are actually made adjectival by addition of **ter-**; thus **belakang** 'behind' and **ke muka** 'to the front' act as adjectives only in **terbelakang** 'most backward, last' and **terkemuka** 'most prominent, foremost'.

A superlative phrase can be expanded by a number of delimiting prepositional phrases, most commonly phrases beginning with **dari** 'of' or **di** 'in':

Nasi goreng yang paling enak dari semua makanan yang tersedia.
Fried rice is the tastiest of all the food available.
Ini gempa bumi terburuk di daerah ini.
This was the worst earthquake in this district.

A superlative phrase can contain an ordinal number (see 1.151) indicating ranking. Prefix **ke-** on the ordinal can be replaced by **nomor** 'number':

Dia petinju terbaik kedua/Dia petinju terbaik nomor dua.
He is the second best boxer.

The ordinal can precede the head of the adjective phrase, in which case **yang** optionally comes between the ordinal and head:

Ini nomor delapan terendah.
This is the eighth lowest.

Dia petinju kedua yang terbaik.
He is the second best boxer.

The ordinal can cooccur with a delimiter:
Vietnam akan menjadi negara pengekspor beras ketiga terbesar di dunia.
Vietnam will become the third largest exporter of rice in the world.

Equative phrases

2.103 An equative construction says that one thing is similar to another in the quality indicated by the adjective. The other thing is expressed as a qualifier following the adjective. There are two constructions:

a. **se-** + adjective + qualifier
b. **sama** + adjective-**nya dengan** + qualifier

The latter construction is actually a type of topic-comment construction (see 3.87) which needs discussion here because of its meaning. The qualifier is usually a noun phrase:
Gedung ini setinggi gedung itu.
Gedung ini sama tingginya dengan gedung itu.
This building is as tall as that building.

The qualifier may be **ini** 'this' or **itu** 'that' or a nominalised construction (see 3.132) with **yang ini** 'this one' or **yang itu** 'that one'. The difference in meaning is shown by the following:
Buku ini tidak semahal yang itu.
This book is not as expensive as that one.
Buku ini tidak semahal itu.
This book is not that expensive.

In the first sentence above **yang itu** refers to another book while in the second **itu** refers to, for instance, a price previously mentioned.

With the **se-** construction the qualifier can be a relative clause:
Saya tidak sebodoh yang dikira orang.
I'm not as silly as people think.

The **sama ... -nya** construction cannot be used if the preceding noun is first or second person. Thus it cannot occur in the following:

Saya setinggi Ali.
I'm as tall as Ali.

Nor can it occur following **tidak**. Thus it cannot occur in the following:

Buku ini tidak semahal yang itu.
This book is not as expensive as that one.

The **sama ... -nya** construction allows the two things being equated to be indicated in the same noun phrase. The **se-** construction cannot occur here:

John dan Ali sama pandainya.
John and Ali are as clever as each other/are equally clever.

In such constructions, where there is no qualifier, many speakers allow omission of **-nya**:

Mereka sama pandai.
They are equally clever.

If the head of the phrase is a compound only **sama ... -nya** can occur:

Tini sama lemah lembutnya dengan kakaknya.
Tini is as gentle as her older sister.

The modifying adverb **hampir** 'almost' can precede an equative construction with **se-**:

Dia hampir setinggi saya.
He's almost as tall as me.

Negated adjectives

2.104 An adjective preceded by **paling** 'most' and a number of modifying adverbs (see 2.100) can be negated. **Tidak** occurs between **paling** or the modifier and the adjective:

Ini makanan yang paling tidak enak.
This is the most unpleasant food.
Cara itu sangat tidak manusiawi.
That method is very inhumane.

Organisasi itu dinilainya kian tidak efisien.
He judges that organisation as increasingly inefficient.

In such constructions only the adjective is negated. This is different from negation of a whole adjective phrase when it occurs in the predicate of an adjective clause (see 3.9). In this case **tidak** precedes the whole phrase:

Makanan ini tidak begitu enak.
This food isn't very tasty.
Jasnya tidak terlalu besar.
His jacket isn't too big.

Referent phrases

2.105 A prepositional phrase introduced by **untuk**, **bagi** or **buat** 'for' can follow the adjective to indicate with reference to whom or what the characteristic indicated by the adjective applies:

Ini aneh untuk saya.
This is strange for me.

A modifying adverb can precede the adjective:

Mobil ini terlalu besar buat kami.
This car is too big for us.
Udara di Jakarta makin tidak baik untuk paru-paru.
The air in Jakarta is increasingly bad for the lungs.

Frequently an adjective phrase containing a referent phrase occurs as the predicate of a clause whose subject begins with **untuk** (see 3.115). If the subject follows the predicate, which it usually does, the referent phrase takes **bagi**, to avoid the occurrence of a series of constructions beginning with **untuk** (another example occurs in section 3.115):

Sulit bagi kita untuk menurunkan harga.
It is difficult for us to lower prices.

If the subject does not begin with **untuk**, being a simple nominal clause (see 3.143), the referent phrase can begin with **untuk**:

Sulit untuk kami memperoleh bukti.
It is difficult for us to get proof.

NUMBERS AND NUMBER PHRASES

2.106 Numbers are either definite or indefinite. The position of numbers within noun phrases is discussed in sections 2.14–20. In the following sections the internal structure of numbers is discussed. The only definite numbers discussed here are cardinal numbers (see 2.107–12). Derived numbers are described in sections 1.145–63.

Cardinal numbers

2.107 Cardinal units are:

satu one
dua two
tiga three
empat four
lima five
enam six
tujuh seven
delapan eight
sembilan nine

Group numbers are:

puluh tens
belas teens
ratus hundreds
ribu thousands
juta millions
milyar billions

Group numbers combine with one of the units. 'One' is **se-** except that with **juta** the full unit **satu** can occur and with **milyar** it must occur:

sepuluh ten
seribu one thousand
sejuta, satu juta one million
satu milyar one billion

Otherwise a full unit precedes the group number:

dua puluh twenty
tiga belas thirteen
empat ratus four hundred

Smaller numbers are expressed after larger numbers:
dua puluh satu twenty one
seratus lima puluh one hundred and fifty
dua ribu enam ratus tiga puluh sembilan
two thousand six hundred and thirty nine

When numbers are written with Arabic numerals a full stop, rather than a comma, is used to mark off each three placings:
1.000 (seribu) 1,000
2.300.000 (dua juta tiga ratus ribu) 2,300,000

2.108 Fractions (see also 1.149) follow full numbers:
satu setengah one and a half
dua sepertiga two and a third
lima dua pertiga five and two thirds
Saya sudah membaca dua setengah halaman.
I've read two and a half pages.

2.109 In decimal numbers **koma** 'comma', equivalent to 'point' in English, and represented in writing by a comma, precedes the numerator:
dua koma tiga (2,3)
two point three (2.3)
satu koma satu juta (1,1 juta)
one point one million (1.1 million)

2.110 'Nought, zero' is **nol**, although in reading out lists of numerals, such as in telephone numbers, many people use **kosong**:
tiga nol dua/tiga kosong dua
three o two/three zero two (302)

2.111 Arithmetic phrases consist of two cardinal numbers separated by a word indicating an arithmetic operation:
enam tambah dua six plus two
sepuluh kurang lima ten minus five
tiga kali dua three times two
enam belas dibagi dua sixteen divided by two

Such phrases frequently occur as subject of a clause with **sama dengan** 'equals' (see 3.13).

2.112 Cardinal numbers can be preceded by a modifier, such as **lebih dari** 'more than':

Lebih dari sepuluh orang tewas dalam kecelakaan itu.
More than ten people died in the accident.

Modifiers of cardinal numbers include:

kira-kira, sekitar, kurang lebih about, more or less
hampir almost
sampai up to
genap fully
lebih dari more than
kurang dari less than

The last two modifiers in the above list can be negated:

Tidak kurang dari satu juta orang menjadi pengecer Amway.
No less than one million people have become Amway retailers.

The modifier **lebih** can follow the number:

Akuarium itu dapat menampung lima ribu lebih binatang laut.
The aquarium can hold more than five thousand sea creatures.

Indefinite numbers

2.113 Indefinite numbers include the following:

semua all
segala all
seluruh all of, whole of; all
segenap all
seantero the whole (of an area)
sebagian part of
tiap, setiap, tiap-tiap each, every
banyak many (with count nouns); a lot, much (with non-count nouns)
beberapa several
sedikit a little, few
bermacam-macam various, all sorts of
berbagai, pelbagai various
sejumlah a number of

kebanyakan most
salah satu, salah seorang one of
masing-masing each
aneka various, all sorts of
sembarang any (kind of), no particular

Some indefinite numbers, including **banyak** and **sedikit**, can take a modifying adverb (see 2.100):
banyak sekali orang very many people
terlalu sedikit gula too little sugar

Banyak is preceded by **lebih** 'more' before a noun where in English 'more' directly preceded the noun:
lebih banyak uang more money

Several indefinite numbers can be negated by **tidak**, including **semua, seluruh, setiap, banyak, sedikit**:
Tidak banyak orang yang senang pada dia.
Not many people like him.
Tidak semua orang bisa mengontrol marah seperti itu.
Not all people can control anger in that way.

Sembarang differs from other indefinite numbers in that it is negated by **bukan**:
Bukan sembarang orang diundang.
Not just any old person was invited.

Several indefinite numbers can be pronominalised (see 2.95).

2.114 The indefinite number **suatu** 'a, one' is similar in function to **sebuah** (see 2.21). This usually occurs with abstract nouns:
suatu sistem/ide yang bagus/penyelidikan/pertemuan
a system/good idea/investigation/meeting

While **suatu** is sometimes used with concrete objects, **(se)buah** is sometimes used with abstract things; there is thus some overlap:
sebuah/suatu pondok/dialek/propinsi/kesimpulan
a hut/dialect/province/conclusion

However, unlike classifiers, **suatu** is inherently singular.

2.115 The indefinite number **masing-masing** deserves some comment. It occurs before a noun – but after a pronoun (see 2.80) – with a similar meaning to **tiap** 'each', but emphasises the separateness of each of the people or things involved:

Masing-masing transmigran menerima sebidang tanah.
Each transmigrant received a plot of land.

It also occurs after a noun, where the separateness of each of the people or things referred to is caused by its correlation separately with someone or something mentioned elsewhere. In this case it could also be regarded as following a possessive pronoun with the pronoun deleted:

Mereka pulang ke rumah masing-masing.
They each returned to their own home.
Para sandera menelpon keluarga masing-masing.
Each of the hostages telephoned his (own) family.

Masing-masing can occur as an indefinite pronoun (see 2.96).

2.116 A special indefinite number is **para**. Used only with humans, **para** marks the noun as plural and referring to a particular group:

Jenaza para korban dibawa ke rumah sakit.
The bodies of the victims were taken to the hospital.
Beginilah terungkapkan cinta dan kesetiaan terhadap para leluhur.
In this way can be expressed love and faithfulness to the ancestors.

Para is used only with nouns indicating people having some characteristic in common, such as **para guru** 'the teachers', **para nelayan** 'the fishermen'. It does not occur with generic nouns such as **orang** 'person', **anak** 'child', **manusia** 'human'.

2.117 While **satu-satunya** 'the only' is not specifically indefinite it can be grouped with indefinite numbers:

Satu-satunya jembatan dari desa itu sudah rusak.

The only bridge from that village has been wrecked.

PREPOSITIONS AND PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

2.118 A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition and a noun phrase. The preposition links the following noun phrase to another component of the sentence. At the clause level the preposition shows the relationship of the following noun phrase to the predicate.

Locative prepositions

2.119 Among the most important prepositions are those which indicate position and direction. These are the locative prepositions. There are three basic locative prepositions: **di**, **ke**, and **dari**. The first, **di** 'in, at, on' indicates that the action occurs in the place indicated by the following noun; there is no movement. Preposition **ke** 'to' indicates movement toward and **dari** 'from' indicates movement away:

Dia tinggal di kota.
He lives in the city.
Dia berangkat dari kota.
He set off from the city.
Dia berjalan ke kota.
He walked to the city.

These can combine with a set of locative pronouns, which indicate position in relation to the speaker. The locative pronouns are **sini** 'here (near speaker)', **situ** 'there (not far off)', and **sana** 'there (far off)'. The combination of the three locative prepositions and three locative pronouns produces a nine-way distinction of location and direction, including:

di sini (at) here
ke situ to there (close)
dari sana from there (far)

The locative prepositions also combine with the question word **mana** 'where' (see 4.17).

2.120 The three locative prepositions also combine with a set of locative nouns which indicate location in relation to the following noun. The locative nouns include:

atas top, above	**bawah** beneath
depan front	**muka** front
samping side	**dalam** inside
antara between	**luar** outside
tepi edge	**belakang** back
seberang other side	**sebelah** side

Examples in sentences are:

Dia muncul dari belakang rumah.
She appeared from behind the house.
Di sebelah rumah ada pohon mangga.
At the side of the house there is a mango tree.
Mereka berenang ke seberang sungai.
They swam to the other side of the river (They swam across the river).

The locative noun can be omitted from such constructions if it refers to a position which is normally understood; thus **di laci** for **di dalam laci** 'in(side) the drawer', **di meja** for **di atas meja** 'on (top of) the table'. If, however, some other position is referred to the locative noun is necessary: **di bawah meja** 'under the table'.

Locative nouns indicating 'side' can be made more specific by such words as **kanan** 'right', **kiri** 'left', **utara** 'north', and so on:

di sebelah kiri rumah on the left side of the house

2.121 For many speakers **di** is omitted before a locative noun if figurative space is referred to; in this case the locative noun occurs alone as a preposition:

tokoh dalam cerita itu
the character in that story
perbedaan antara kedua kata itu
the difference between those two words

2.122 The locative preposition **dari** is also used for figurative direction away:

Mereka melindungi anaknya dari tentara.

They protected their children from the army.

2.123 When the following noun refers to a person **ke** is replaced by **kepada** 'to':

Dia memberikan surat itu kepada ayahnya.
She gave the letter to her father.

2.124 The word **pada** is usually used instead of **di** when location in time is referred to:

Dia datang pada jam tiga.
He came at three o'clock.
Kami akan berangkat pada tanggal dua.
We will leave on the second.

There is an increasing tendency for **di** to be used for some references to time, including before the words **hari** 'day', **bulan** 'month', **tahun** 'year' followed by a proper noun, although some people regard use of **di** here as substandard:

pada/di bulan Desember in December

In such contexts **dalam** may also occur:

Kapal itu tenggelam pada/di/dalam tahun 1985.
The ship sank in 1985.

Besides its use in reference to time **pada** is used in other contexts of figurative space:

Saya tertarik pada pelajaran itu.
I'm interested in that subject.
Perubahan-perubahan itu terjadi pada semua bahasa.
Those changes occur in all languages.

Pada is sometimes used instead of **kapada**:

Berikan surat itu pada saya.
Give that letter to me.

2.125 The form **kemari** '(to) here', as in **Datang kemari!** 'Come here!', is written as a single word because **mari** does not occur with the other locative prepositions; it means the same as **ke sini**.

Other prepositions

2.126 There are many prepositions apart from the locatives. A number occur in clause adjuncts, as discussed in sections 2.165ff. A few of the more common non-locative prepositions are:

untuk, bagi, guna, buat for
dengan with
tentang about, concerning
oleh by
sampai until
seperti like
tanpa without

Some prepositions are complex, including a prefix:

terhadap towards
beserta together with
sesudah, setelah after

Some also function as verbs, as indicated in parentheses:

menurut according to (follow)
mengenai about, concerning (affect, concern)
lewat via (pass by)

A few consist of two words:

oleh karena because of, on account of
bersama dengan together with

The forms **kepada** 'to' and **daripada** 'than, of' consist of two words written as one.

2.127 A number of words function both as conjunctions (see 4.69) and prepositions. As conjunctions they link a subordinate clause to the main clause in a sentence; as prepositions they link a noun phrase to the predicate. In the first example below **karena** 'because' is a conjunction, followed by a subordinate clause; in the second it is a preposition followed by a noun phrase:

Dia tidak datang karena ayahnya meninggal.
He didn't come because his father died.
Dia tidak datang karena kematian ayahnya.
He didn't come because of the death of his father.

Among other words which can function as both preposition and conjunction are:

sebab because
sebelum before
sesudah after
sehabis after
selama during
dengan by means of, with

2.128 Not all Indonesian prepositions consistently translate one English preposition. The preposition **terhadap** illustrates the variety of correspondences which might occur. This does not result from any vagueness in the meaning of **terhadap**; the meaning 'directed at' is discernible in all these contexts:

sangsi terhadap orang yang melanggar kebiasaan
sanctions against people who violate custom
sikapnya terhadap tamu-tamunya
his attitude to/towards his guests
jengkel terhadap dirinya sendiri
annoyed at himself
perlakuan Iran terhadap para sandera
Iran's treatment of the hostages
berminat terhadap sejarah
interested in history
perang terhadap perjudian
war on/against gambling
kemenangan terhadap Jepang
victory over Japan
kebencian terhadap mereka
hatred of/towards them

2.129 The preposition **oleh** 'by' marks the agent of a passive verb (see 3.27) and the agent attribute in a noun phrase (see 2.53). It can sometimes follow an intransitive verb, in which case it can be regarded as a contraction of **oleh karena** 'as a result of, because of':

Ratusan juta orang akan tewas oleh ledakan, radiasi, wabah penyakit dan kelaparan.
Hundreds of millions of people will die as a result of explosions, radiation, epidemics and hunger

It can sometimes occur with an adjective predicate, being synonymous with **dengan** 'with':

Stadion penuh sesak oleh orang yang datang untuk menonton pertandingan.
The stadium was packed with people who had come to see the match.

If, however, **dengan** indicates instrument or means **oleh** cannot alternatively occur:

Mereka bepergian dengan kapal laut.
They travelled by ship.

2.130 A number of intransitive verbs take a following preposition, being equivalent in meaning to transitive verbs with suffix **-i**. These are further discussed in section 1.219. With some of these verbs there is considerable freedom as to which prepositions it can take. In particular, **akan** and **pada** are frequently interchangeable. The following are some examples:

cinta akan/pada love
percaya akan/pada believe in
kenal akan/dengan know, be acquainted with
curiga akan/pada/terhadap be suspicious of

Colloquially **sama** can replace all the above prepositions.

2.131 The preposition **antara** 'between' may be followed by coordinated noun phrases, in which case **dengan** is usually the coordinator. Examples are given in section 2.207.

THE PREDICATE PHRASE

2.132 The predicate is the essential component of every clause (see 3.4). A predicate phrase contains an obligatory predicate centre, which is a verb or one of a number of phrases, including noun phrase, adjective phrase, and prepositional phrase. The predicate centre determines the type of clause, as discussed in section 3.4.

In addition to the obligatory centre a predicate phrase may contain a number of other elements, including markers of time, modality, negation and reciprocity.

Negation

2.133 There are four negative words: **bukan, tidak, belum** and **jangan**. **Belum** 'not yet' combines the meanings of **bukan/tidak** plus temporal marker **sudah** and is discussed in section 2.156. **Jangan** 'don't' occurs in imperative constructions and is discussed in section 4.35.

2.134 **Bukan** negates a noun; that is, it is used if the predicate centre contains a noun or noun phrase:

Dia bukan guru.
She isn't a teacher.

2.135 **Tidak** negates all types of predicate other than nouns, including verbs, adjectives, prepositional phrases:

Mereka tidak menolong kami.
They didn't help us.
Dia tidak di sini.
She isn't here.
Hawa Bandung tidak terlalu panas.
The climate of Bandung is not too hot.

2.136 A number of prepositions, including **karena** 'because', **untuk** 'for', **seperti** 'like', can be negated by either **bukan** or **tidak**:

Ini bukan/tidak untuk saudara.
These are not for you.
Penyakitnya bukan/tidak karena itu.
His illness is not because of that.
Ini bukan/tidak seperti desa kita.
This isn't like our village.

2.137 **Bukan** can replace **tidak**. As such it is emphatic, implying that a contradictory statement could follow:

Dia bukan bodoh.
He isn't stupid (but there is another reason for his behaviour).

The contradiction can be expressed, for instance, as a clause beginning with **melainkan** 'but rather':

Dia bukan bodoh, melainkan malas saja.
He's not stupid but just lazy.

Such constructions are discussed in section 4.84.

2.138 Several variants of **tidak** occur. **Tak** has a literary flavour for most Indonesians. It was once obligatory before **ter-** verbs (see 1.272), although in modern Indonesian **tidak** is also common in this position:

Tak ada dosa yang tak terampuni.
There are no sins which cannot be forgiven.

Tiada is a literary form meaning the same as **tidak** 'not' and **tidak ada** 'there isn't':

Aku tiada berkata begitu.
I did not say that.
Di daerah itu tiada air.
In that region there is no water.

2.139 With some verbs **tidak** can be replaced by **kurang** 'less' to indicate a lessened degree of negation or to soften the impact of the negation:

Aku kurang percaya akan kabar itu.
I didn't really believe that news.

2.140 Both **tidak** and **bukan** can be emphasised by **sama sekali** '(not) at all, definitely (not)' and **sedikitpun** '(not) even a little':

Ini sama sekali bukan uang orang lain.
This is definitely not other people's money.
Saya sama sekali tidak tergantung pada dia.
I'm not in the least dependent on him.
Mereka sedikitpun tidak mempedulikan nasib orang lain.
They don't in the slightest care about the fate of other people.

2.141 **Tidak** can occur in several phrases besides the predicate phrase, including adjective phrases (see 2.104), and with indefinite numbers (see 2.113). **Bukan** occurs as a

sentence tag, irrespective of which negative would occur in the main clause (see 4.9). It also occurs in some correlative structures (see 4.83ff).

Temporal markers

2.142 In many languages, including English, it is necessary to specify when an action occurs in relation to the present or in relation to some other event, either in the form of the verb or with obligatory aspect markers (as in 'ate', 'has eaten', 'had eaten', etc.). In Indonesian the form of the verb does not change to indicate tense or aspect. A sentence such as **Dia pergi ke kantor** carries no indication of whether the verb refers to a regular occurrence or to a single occurrence and, if the latter, when it happens in relation to the present. This is inferred by listeners from the context within which the utterance is made.

Time can be indicated by adjuncts of time (see 2.182), such as **setiap hari** 'every day' and **tadi pagi** 'this morning (past)':

Dia pergi ke kantor setiap hari.
He goes to the office every day.
Tadi pagi dia pergi ke kantor.
This morning he went to the office.

Time can also be indicated by a set of temporal markers within the predicate. These indicate that the action has occurred, is occurring, or is yet to occur in relation to the moment of utterance or in relation to some other event referred to.

In studies of Indonesian grammar these are usually referred to as 'aspect markers', indicating completeness or continuation of an action. Because of this interpretation **akan** 'will' is usually grouped apart, with modals or 'auxiliary verbs'.

2.143 **Sudah** usually indicates that an action has occurred or that a state has been achieved:

Ali sudah bangun.
Ali has woken up.
Ali sudah sembuh.

Ali has recovered.

With verbs which indicate a state **sudah** usually refers both to the action which begins the state and to the continuation of the state:

Dia sudah tidur.
He has gone to bed/He is asleep.
Dia sudah duduk.
He has sat down/He is seated.

With such verbs, however, **sudah** can also indicate that the action is complete; context indicating which is meant:

Dia sudah tidur.
He has slept (and is now ready for work).

Sudah can occur with other predicates besides verbs, 'already' usually occurring in the English translation:

Dia sudah tinggi/di sini/guru.
He is already tall/here/a teacher.

2.144 **Telah** has the same meaning as **sudah**:

Dia telah pergi/makan.
He has gone/eaten.

The difference between the two is in register; **telah** is almost entirely confined to writing and very formal speech, while **sudah** occurs in all registers from informal speech to the most formal styles.

2.145 **Sedang** indicates that an action is in progress, sometimes glossed 'in the process of':

Mereka sedang makan.
They are eating.

2.146 **Lagi** and **tengah** can replace **sedang**, although they are less frequent and not used by all speakers:

Mereka lagi makan.
They are eating.
Apartment Citraland kini tengah dibangun di Jalan Satrio.

The Citraland apartments are in the process of being build in Satrio Road.

2.147 **Masih** indicates that an action is still occurring:
Dia masih makan.
She is still eating.
Like **sudah** it can occur with other predicate types:
Dia masih muda/di sini/pegawai.
She is still young/here/an employee.

2.148 **Akan** indicates a future event or state:
Kami akan makan nanti.
We will eat soon.
Tugasnya akan berat.
His task will be heavy.

2.149 **Bakal** indicates a future event. It is less common than **akan** and only refers to action a considerable time in the future. Thus it can replace **akan** in the sentence below but not in the two sentences illustrating **akan** in 2.148:
Dia akan/bakal menjadi presiden.
He will become president.

It does not occur with other than verbal predicates. Where **bakal** precedes a noun it is part of the noun phrase, meaning 'prospective, future': **bakal presiden** 'future president'.

2.150 **Baru** indicates that an action or state has just occurred:
Dia baru tiba/mandi.
He has just arrived/bathed.
Umurnya baru empat tahun.
She's just four years old.

Baru is often followed by **saja** for emphasis:
Dia baru saja tiba.
He's only just arrived.

2.151 **Pernah** indicates that an action occurred in the far past. It cannot be used of recent events. It corresponds to 'ever' but unlike the English word it is not restricted to

negative and interrogative sentences. It is also translatable 'once':

Dia pernah belajar di Paris.
She once studied in Paris.

2.152 In examples in sections 2.143–51 temporal markers refer to time in relation to the moment of utterance. Time relative to another event may also be indicated. In the following examples the point of reference is an event in the past. Thus **sudah** and **telah** indicate that an action had occurred before another action, and so on:

Sebelum meninggal dia telah menceritakan riwayat hidupnya.
Before dying he had related his life story.
Ketika saya sampai di rumahnya Tom sudah bangun.
When I arrived at his house Tom had already got up.
Ketika saya sampai di rumahnya Tom sedang makan.
When I arrived at his house Tom was eating.

If the point of reference is the past **akan** indicates that something was going to happen (although sometimes it does not occur), translatable 'would; was going to':

Dia berjanji akan datang.
He promised he would come.
Ketika akan menyerang Batavia, Sultan Agung lebih dulu mendirikan lumbung-lumbung padi di sepanjang jalan yang akan dilalui bala tentaranya.
When he was going to attack Batavia, Sultan Agung first of all built rice barns along the road which his army was going to use.[4]

Modals

2.153 Modals, often called auxiliary verbs in studies of Indonesian, refer to such concepts as possibility, ability and necessity. Grammars of Indonesian vary considerably as to the words they place in this category, and not all modals function in precisely the same way. The main modals are:

dapat, bisa can, be able

4 This example is from Kaswanti Purwo (1984: 81).

boleh may, have permission
harus, mesti must
perlu must
mampu, sanggup able, have the capacity
sempat have the opportunity, have the time, be able

A number of other words usually grouped with modals, especially **ingin** and **mau** 'want', differ both grammatically and semantically from modals and are best treated as full verbs.

Modals usually occur with verbs:

Kamu boleh pergi tapi harus pulang sebelum jam lima.
You may go but you must come home before five o'clock.

Some modals can occur with adjectives and locatives:

Tidak banyak orang yang bisa dekat dengan Kim Jong Il.
Not many people are able to be close to Kim Jong Il.
Seorang polisi harus tinggi.
A policeman must be tall.
Saya harus ke sana.
I have to go there.

Combinations of Negative, Temporal Marker and Modal

2.154 Many combinations of negative, temporal and modal are possible. In general the first to occur modifies the meaning of everything which follows within the predicate. In the first example below **tidak** modifies **boleh hadir** 'may be present', giving 'not the case that (he) may be present', while in the second example **boleh** expresses the possibility of **tidak hadir** 'not present', giving 'permissible (for him) not to be present':

Dia tidak boleh hadir.
He is not allowed to be present.
Dia boleh tidak hadir.
He is allowed to be absent.

Pelamar tidak harus kawin.
Applicants do not need to be married.

Pelamar harus tidak kawin.
Applicants must be unmarried.

Sometimes a reversal of word order does not change meaning. Thus **sudah harus** and **harus sudah** both mean 'must already':

Kamu sudah harus di sini jam lima.
Kamu harus sudah di sini jam lima.
You must be here by five o'clock.

Not all combinations are possible and Indonesians differ in what they find acceptable. Some combinations, while occurring, are of very low frequency.

2.155 Two negatives may cooccur in the predicate. In the following example the first **tidak** negates **dapat**. This combination in turn modifies **tidak terkena** 'not subject to', giving 'cannot be the case that (it) is not subject to'. In the second example **tidak** negates **tak terbatas** 'unlimited':

Bahasa Indonesia tidak dapat tidak terkena hukum perubahan.
Indonesian cannot avoid being subject to the laws of change.
Kekuasaan kepala negara tidak tak terbatas.
The powers of a head of state are not unlimited.

2.156 **Belum** 'not yet' combines the meanings of **bukan/tidak** plus temporal marker **sudah**:

Dia belum professor.
He isn't a professor yet.
Mereka belum berangkat.
They haven't left yet.

Sudah can precede **tidak** and **bukan**, the combination indicating that what follows is no longer the case. **Lagi** (see 2.161) frequently occurs also:

Karena asap menara pengendali sudah tidak terlihat lagi.
Because of the smoke the control tower could no longer be seen.
Dia sudah bukan pembantu lagi.

She is no longer a servant.

2.157 For many speakers negatives do not combine with **sedang**, **masih**, and **baru**, although **tidak** can precede **akan** and **pernah**:

Mereka tidak pernah pergi ke bioskop.
They never go to the movies.
Dia tidak akan datang.
He won't come.

The combination **belum pernah** is equivalent to the negative of **sudah pernah** and thus differs from **tidak pernah**, as in the following examples:

Saya belum pernah pergi ke sana.
I have never been there.
Saya tidak pernah pergi ke sana.
I never go there.

2.158 There are only a few combinations of temporals, usually involving **akan**:

Apakah dia akan pernah mendapat pekerjaan?
Will he ever get work?

The combination **sudah akan** means 'about to' when referring to the past. Referring to the future **sudah akan** and **akan sudah** both mean 'will have (done the action)':

Dia sudah akan setuju tadi.
He was about to agree just now.
Kami akan sudah selesai kalau anda kembali jam lima.
We will already be finished if you come back at five.
Saya yakin dalam beberapa hari lagi surat anda sudah akan sampai.
I am sure that in a few days your letter will have arrived.

The combination **akan pernah** and **pernah akan** can be negated:

Situasi itu tidak akan pernah timbul.
That situation will never arise.

2.159 A combination of two modals always includes **harus** 'must':

Australia harus dapat meyakinkan mitra dagangnya.
Australia must be able to convince its trading partners.

Combinations of temporal and modal are common:
Itulah yang masih harus dibuktikan.
That's what still has to be proved.
Dia bakal mampu menaklukkan mereka.
He will be able to defeat them.

Some combinations of negative, temporal and modal occur:
Partai itu tidak akan bisa membentuk pemerintahan.
That party will not be able to form a government.

Saling

2.160 Before a verb **saling** marks reciprocal action. It can occur with any verb which allows a human object. As with verbs having reciprocal affixation (see 1.248 and 1.255), an object does not occur. The English translation has 'each other' as object:
Mereka saling mengenal/memaafkan/mengunjungi.
They know/forgive/visit each other.

Several **-i** verbs (see 1.212ff) optionally drop the suffix in the presence of **saling**:
Mereka saling mencuriga/mencinta. (cf. **Dia mencurigai/mencintai istrinya.**)
They suspect/love each other. (cf. He suspects/loves his wife.)

Saling can occur redundantly with reciprocal verbs (see 1.251).

Kembali and lagi

2.161 The predicate centre can be followed by **kembali** or **lagi**. Both mean 'again'; **kembali** also has the meaning 'return to former state'. (Occurring before the predicate **lagi** is a temporal marker meaning 'in the process' – see 2.146).
Anak itu menangis lagi.
That child is crying again.
Koran yang dibredel sudah terbit kembali.
The banned newspaper has reappeared.

The combination of a negative and **lagi** means 'no longer, not any more' (see also 2.156):

Dia bukan guru lagi.
She's no longer a teacher.

For speakers from some regions the combination of **belum** and **lagi** means 'not yet':

Saya belum lapar lagi.
I'm not hungry yet.

REFLEXIVE PHRASES

2.162 A reflexive phrase consists minimally of reflexive pronoun **diri** 'self'. A minimal reflexive phrase usually occurs as the object of a verb and indicates that the object is the same person as the subject of the verb:

Kamu harus menjaga diri baik-baik.
You must look after yourself properly.
Tuan rumah memperkenalkan diri kepada kami.
The host introduced himself to us.
Kami mengabdikan diri kepada tanah air.
We devote ourselves to the nation.

2.163 Sometimes a transitive verb followed by **diri** occurs where English uses an intransitive verb:

Penjahat itu melarikan diri.
The criminal fled.
Perdana menteri mengundurkan diri.
The prime minister resigned.

Other examples of this formation where English uses an intransitive verb are the following. In some cases an intransitive verb can also occur, as indicated:

meloloskan diri/lolos escape
menarik diri withdraw
mencalonkan diri stand (for office)
mengkhususkan diri specialise (in a certain field)
menyerahkan diri/menyerah surrender

When **membunuh** 'kill' occurs with **diri** prefix **meN-** is usually lost: **bunuh diri** 'commit suicide'.

2.164 The full reflexive phrase is **diri** + possessive pronoun + **sendiri**. Third person **-nya** corresponds to a plural as well as a singular third person subject:

dirinya sendiri himself/herself/themselves

Either the possessive pronoun or **sendiri** can be omitted. The addition of either is more emphatic than **diri** alone; occurrence of **sendiri** makes the phrase particularly emphatic:

Kasim menganggap dirinya lain dari orang lain.
Kasim considers himself different from other people.
Sekarang anda pasti sudah mempersiapkan diri anda.
Now you have certainly prepared yourself.
Tidak ada orang lain yang menghargaiku sebagai manusia. Karena itu aku harus menghargai diriku sendiri.
No one else respects me as a person. Because of that I must respect myself.
Dia gemar mencandai dirinya sendiri.
He's fond of joking at himself.

If the object is a **bahwa** clause (see 3.111) a reflexive phrase still occurs, whether **bahwa** is present or omitted (English does not use a reflexive if corresponding 'that' occurs):

Dia menyatakan dirinya bukan familiku lagi.
He declared himself no longer a relative of mine.
Mereka percaya bahwa dirinya lebih unggul dari orang lain.
They believe that they are superior to other people.

A reflexive phrase can also follow a preposition if it refers to the same person as the actor (the subject of an active clause or the agent of a passive clause). Following a preposition **diri** cannot occur alone:

Dia jengkel terhadap dirinya sendiri.
He is annoyed at himself.
Kata-kata itu saya tujukan kepada diri saya sendiri.
I directed those words at myself.
Narkotika itu dia beli tak hanya untuk pasien tapi juga untuk dirinya sendiri.
He bought those narcotics not only for the patients but also for himself.

Sometimes a reflexive phrase is used instead of a personal pronoun even though the action is not reflexive, that is, the reflexive phrase does not identify the same person as the actor. This is usually done for emphasis (although sometimes the speaker may be confused as to whether the action is reflexive or not):

Dia menolak untuk diperiksa mengenai tuduhan-tuduhan terhadap dirinya.
He refused to be examined on the charges against him.
Saya siap menghadapi hukuman apa pun yang akan dijatuhkan atas diri saya.
I am prepared to face any punishment which befalls me.

A phrase consisting of **diri** followed by a noun, meaning something like 'the person of [noun]' can occur in a non-reflexive context:

Dia akan menulis buku tentang diri Presiden.
He is going to write a book about the President.
Raksasa itu melambangkan nafsu-nafsu jahat dalam diri manusia.
The giant symbolises the evil passions within humans.

The reflexive phrase can be subject of a passive clause (see 3.40).

ADJUNCTS

2.165 Adjuncts are components of a clause which give information about such matters as place, time, frequency, and manner. Adjuncts may be single words, prepositional phrases (see 2.118ff) or other phrase types. Adjuncts are often called adverbs or adverbials, although here the word adverb is restricted to adjuncts of manner.

There is a great variety of adjuncts of which only the most frequent can be dealt with in the following sections. In addition to adjuncts which give information which applies to the clause in general there are other adjuncts, called focusing adjuncts, which focus on a particular element in the clause. These are discussed in sections 2.216–26.

Adverbs

2.166 Adverbs are a subgroup of adjuncts which give information about the manner in which an action is performed. They are sometimes called adverbs of manner. Many adverbs are based on adjectives and are usually translated by an adjective with suffix *-ly* in English. There are several ways in which adverbs are derived from adjectives, as described in the following sections. Some adverbs are not based on adjectives and these are also described below. Where the derivation involves affixation adverbs are described in Chapter One (see 1.136 and 1.142).

Adjectives used directly as adverbs

2.167 A few adjectives can be used directly as adverbs without a preposition or reduplication:

Kami bekerja keras.
We work hard.
Mereka akan mudah mencari pekerjaan.
They will get work easily.

*Adverbs formed with **dengan***

2.168 Many adverbs of manner are phrases consisting of **dengan** followed by an adjective or adjective phrase:

Edberg melompati net dengan gembira setelah mengalahkan Sampras.
Edberg jumped the net with glee after defeating Sampras.
Jumlah penduduk di kota Jakarta menanjak dengan cepat sekali.
Jakarta's population is rising very quickly.
Amerika dengan tegas mengingatkan dunia akan kemampuannya.
America forcefully reminded the world of its strength.

While many adjectives can be adverbialised by placing **dengan** before them a few cannot, including **aneh** 'strange', **benar** 'true', **bodoh** 'stupid', **lucu** 'funny'. However, there is considerable variation between what different people regard as acceptable.

The suffix **-nya** can optionally occur on the adjective:

Hujan turun dengan derasnya.

The rain fell heavily.

Adverbs formed with ***secara***

2.169 Some adjectives can be adverbialised by placing **secara** before them:

Mereka hidup secara sederhana.
They live simply.
Topeng dapat dibuat secara mudah.
Masks can be made easily.
Dia tidak mengatakan pemikirannya dan sikapnya secara jujur.
He did not state his thinking and attitude honestly.

Adverbs formed with **secara** are not based solely on adjectives. They can be based on verbs acting adjectivally, as discussed in section 2.98, and also on some verbs which do not act as adjectives, and on other word classes:

Manusia hidup berdampingan dengan serangga secara menguntungkan.
Humans live side by side with insects profitably.
Mereka mengundang penelitian ilmiah secara terbuka.
They openly invite scientific inspection.
Plaza ini secara berkala digunakan untuk maksud-maksud komersial.
This plaza is used periodically for commercial purposes.
Kasus itu diusut secara hukum.
The case was investigated legally.
Secara pribadi Moerdiono ikut protes.
Privately Moerdiono joined the protest.

The adjective following **secara** can be negated:

Pernyataan itu secara tidak langsung mengesampingkan anggota PLO.
The statement indirectly ignores the PLO members.
Dia dituduh bergaul secara tidak senonoh dengan wanita itu.
He was accused of associating immorally with the woman.

Reduplicated adjectives

2.170 Some adverbs consist of reduplicated adjectives:

Habiskan nasimu cepat-cepat!

Finish your rice quickly!
Kakinya diikat erat-erat.
His feet were bound tightly.
Penyakit itu betul-betul dapat disembuhkan.
The disease can really be cured.
Dia diam-diam meninggalkan istana.
He quietly left the palace.

2.171 Some adverbs can be derived from adjectives either by use of **dengan** or reduplication, although their number is limited:

Sofyan berteriak keras-keras/dengan keras.
Sofyan screamed loudly.

Other adverbs

2.172 A small group of adverbs consist of a negative followed by reduplicated adjective base plus **-nya**. These indicate that the quality or state specified by the reduplicated form is never reached, often translating 'without ever getting [base]'. The following examples are based on **putus** 'broken, interrupted', **jemu** 'tired' and **jera** 'wary, having learned one's lesson' respectively:

Dengan mereka raja tak putus-putusnya bercanda.
With them the king incessantly cracked jokes.
Dia bekerja tidak jemu-jemunya.
He works tirelessly.
Belum jera-jeranya Salim mencuri.
Salim steals undaunted (not having learned from past experience).

Others in this group include:

tidak puas-puasnya without ever getting enough
tidak bosan-bosannya without ever getting bored
tidak sembuh-sembuhnya without ever recovering

The verb base **henti** 'cease', with optional prefix **ber-**, also occurs in this construction:

Paman saya tak (ber)henti-hentinya merokok.
My uncle smokes incessantly.

2.173 Adverbs derived by reduplication of the adjective with affixation **se-...-nya** are discussed with examples in section 1.136.

In this group are a few set expressions consisting of **se-** plus adjective plus noun, such as **sepuas hati** 'to one's heart's content' and **sekuat tenaga** 'with all one's strength':

Kamu boleh bermain sepuas hati.
You can play to your heart's content.

2.174 The forms described in 1.136 can be replaced by a construction in which the reduplication and **-nya** are replaced by **mungkin** 'possible':

Dia memukul temannya sekeras-kerasnya/sekeras mungkin.
He hit his friend as hard as possible.
Kita harus berangkat selekas-lekasnya/selekas mungkin.
We must leave as soon as possible.

2.175 Words which rarely or never occur as adjectives tend to function adverbally without reduplication or a preceding preposition, such as **terus-menurus** 'continuous', **asyik** 'busy', **serentak** 'in unison, at the same time' (of a number of people acting together), **sekaligus** 'together, at the same time (of action done to several things at once)':

Hujan turun terus-menerus.
Rain fell continuously.
Tetangganya asyik bekerja di sawah.
His neighbours were busily working in the fields.
Semua orang serentak berdiri.
All the people stood up together.
Dia minum semua tablet sekaligus.
He took all the tablets at once.

Others in this group include:

segera immediately
langsung directly
terus continuously
tetap permanently
mutlak unconditionally
langsung directly, immediately

2.176 The words **begini, seperti ini** 'like this, in this way', **begitu, demikian, seperti itu** 'like that' are adverbs of manner:

Mengapa mereka dihina begitu?
Why were they humiliated like that?
Setiap tahun ribuan hektar tanah menghilang begini.
Every year thousands of hectares of land are lost in this way.

2.177 A set of manner adverbs based on numbers indicate the number of people or things involved together in the action. Reduplicated numbers can occur alone (see 1.25 for examples) or with prefix **ber-** (see 1.160 for examples). Alternatively the numbers can be separated by **demi** or **per**:

Mereka keluar dua demi dua.
They came out two by two.
Satu per satu para terdakwa dijatuhi hukuman penjara.
One by one the accused were sentenced to jail.

The phrase **sedikit demi sedikit** 'little by little' can also be grouped here.

Other manner adverbs based on numbers are described in sections 1.158–60 and 1.163.

2.178 The adverbs **sendirian, seorang diri** and, colloquially, **sendiri** (see 2.51) mean 'by oneself, alone':

Anak itu bermain sendirian/seorang diri/sendiri di taman.
The child played alone in the park.

2.179 The reduplicated form **sendiri-sendiri** means 'apart, separately':

Mereka memasak sendiri-sendiri.
They cook separately.

2.180 Both **sendiri** and the phrase **dengan sendirinya** mean 'automatically, by itself, of its own accord' when referring to action by an inanimate subject:

Lemari itu terbuka sendiri.
The cupboard opened by itself.
Batu ginjal keluar dengan sendirinya.

The kidney stone came out by itself.

2.181 As adverbs of manner **ramai** and **banyak** are restricted to preceding certain passive verbs to indicate that the action is performed by a great many people:

Pasar Lewolebo ramai dikunjungi oleh para pedagang.
The Lewolebo market is visited by large numbers of traders.

Adjuncts of time

2.182 An adjunct of time can be a noun phrase, a prepositional phrase or a word. Adjuncts can indicate both specific time and relative time.

Specific time does not make reference to the time of utterance. Specific times can be clock times, days of the week, months, years, and dates.

Relative time indicates when an action or state occurs in relation to the present or some other event. It can be indicated by a temporal marker within the predicate (see 2.142), by a subordinate clause of time (see 4.70) or by an adjunct of time within the clause.

Clock times

2.183 These are usually expressed in terms of hours and minutes or parts of an hour. The number indicating the hour is preceded by **jam** or **pukul** 'o'clock':

jam dua two o'clock
pukul lima five o'clock

There are several ways of indicating minutes or parts of the hour. For minutes after the hour and before the half hour the minute is preceded by **lebih** 'more' or **lewat** 'past'. The word **menit** 'minute' may follow:

jam sembilan lebih sepuluh
ten past nine
pukul lima lewat dua puluh menit
twenty minutes past five

For expressing the half hour **setengah** 'half' is used before the number of the following full hour. The word **jam/pukul** is frequently omitted:

(jam) setengah tiga half past two

Between the half hour and the following full hour minutes are subtracted, the minute being preceded by **kurang** 'less':

jam empat kurang delapan (menit)
eight (minutes) to four

For quarter hours **seperempat** 'one quarter' is used as an alternative to **lima belas (menit)**:

jam lima lebih seperempat/jam lima lebih lima belas
a quarter past five
pukul dua kurang seperempat/pukul dua kurang lima belas menit
a quarter to two

It is becoming increasingly common to simply place the minute after the hour; with this system counting always precedes forward to the full hour:

jam enam tiga puluh six thirty
jam dua empat puluh two forty

Parts of the day, **pagi** 'morning until about ten', **siang** 'between about ten and four', **sore** 'between about four and six' and **malam** 'night' can follow the time, equivalent to 'a.m., in the morning' and so on:

jam lima pagi five o'clock in the morning
jam tujuh malam seven at night

In formal contexts a twenty four hour clock is used. The time is always preceded by **pukul** and minutes are counted forward to the full hour:

pukul delapan belas tiga puluh
eighteen thirty hours (six thirty p.m.)

Days of the week

2.184 The days of the week are proper names (see 2.3):

Minggu, Ahad Sunday
Senin Monday

Selasa Tuesday
Rabu Wednesday
Kamis Thursday
Jumat Friday
Sabtu Saturday

The names of the days are preceded by **hari** 'day':
Dia berangkat hari Senin.
He left on Monday.

Parts of the day can follow the name of the day; in this case **hari** is frequently omitted:
Senin pagi Monday morning
(hari) Jumat malam Friday night

The word **malam** can precede the name of the day to indicate the preceding night:
malam Minggu Saturday night

The names of special days of the year are also preceded by **hari**:
Hari Natal Christmas Day
Hari Angkatan Bersenjata Armed Forces Day

Months

2.185 The names of months are proper nouns:

Januari January	**Juli** July
Februari, Pebruari February	**Agustus** August
Maret March	**September** September
April April	**Oktober** October
Mei May	**Nopember, November** November
Juni June	**Desember** December

The names of the months are preceded by **bulan** 'month':
Dia lahir bulan Maret.
She was born in March.

Years

2.186 The name of a year is expressed either by stating it as a cardinal number (see 2.107) or by stating the part

referring to the century separately. The number is preceded by **tahun** 'year'. Thus '1994' is expressed in either of the following ways:

tahun seribu sembilan ratus sembilan puluh empat
tahun sembilan belas sembilan puluh empat
nineteen ninety four

If the part referring to the century is stated separately the group number for the decade, **puluh**, may be omitted. **Nol** 'zero' can precede a final number under ten:

tahun sembilan belas sembilan tiga
nineteen ninety three
tahun sembilan belas (nol) tiga
nineteen (o) three

Eras can be expressed by placing **Sebelum Masehi** 'before Christ', abbreviated to **SM** 'BC' in writing, or **Masehi** '(after) Christ', abbreviated to **M** 'AD' in writing, after the year:

tahun sepuluh enam puluh enam Masehi 1066 AD

Years in the Moslem calendar are marked by **Hijrah**, abbreviated **H**:

1295 H the year 1295 in the Moslem calendar

Decades can be referred to as indicated in section 1.157.

Dates

2.187 The date is indicated by a cardinal number preceded by **tanggal** 'date'. The name of the month or the month and year can follow:

tanggal lima the fifth
tanggal tiga Februari the third of February
tanggal delapan Juni tahun seribu sembilan ratus sembilan puluh empat
the eighth of June 1994

Prepositional phrases indicating specific time

2.188 The preposition **pada** usually precedes noun phrases indicating specific time (see 2.124):

Anaknya lahir pada tanggal dua Oktober.
Her child was born on the second of October.

Kami mulai bekerja pada jam delapan.
We begin work at eight o'clock.

However, **pada** can be omitted:
Toko ini buka (pada) jam tujuh.
This shop opens at seven o'clock.
Pak Susanto pindah ke Surabaya (pada) tanggal lima/bulan September.
Mr Susanto moved to Surabaya on the fifth/in September.

Phrases with **pada** can contain a word which indicates which part of the time period is being referred to, including **awal** 'beginning', **pertengahan** 'middle' and **akhir** 'end':
pada awal tahun delapan puluhan
at the beginning of the nineteen eighties

In some contexts **di** can occur instead of **pada** (see 2.124).

2.189 Other prepositions occurring in time adjuncts include:
sebelum before
sesudah after
menjelang approaching, towards
sekitar about, around

Para calon harus melapor sebelum jam dua.
The candidates must report before two o'clock.
menjelang akhir tahun
approaching the end of the year
sekitar pukul sepuluh
around ten o'clock

Phrases indicating relative time

2.190 There are a great many words, phrases and expressions indicating relative time, only a few of which are listed here.

2.191 Some adjuncts of time indicate time relative to the present while others can indicate time relative either to the present or to some other event. Adjuncts of time include:
sekarang now
kini now, nowadays

dulu, dahulu earlier, previously
kemudian afterwards
akhir-akhir ini recently
baru-baru ini recently
mula-mula at first
akhirnya finally
sebentar lagi in a moment
tadi recently, a short while ago
nanti soon, shortly
kelak later

Akhir-akhir ini prestasinya terus menanjak.
Recently his performance has continued to improve.
Mereka berangkat tadi.
They left a short time ago.
Kelak saya ingin punya banyak anak.
Later I want to have lots of children.

2.192 Phrases with **hari** 'day', **bulan** 'month', and so on, can combine with **ini** 'this':
hari ini today
bulan ini this month

They can also combine with **(yang) lalu** 'past' and **depan, (yang) akan datang** 'next':
tahun lalu last year
minggu depan/yang akan datang next week

These can occur with a number:
dua minggu lalu two weeks ago
beberapa tahun yang lalu several years ago

Referring to time relative to some other event these expressions can be expanded in numerous ways:
beberapa jam sesudah itu several hours after that
dua hari kemudian two days later
keesokan harinya the following day

2.193 Adjuncts of time also refer to specific days before or after the present, optionally followed by an indication of the part of the day:
kemarin yesterday

kemarin dulu the day before yesterday
besok tomorrow
lusa in two days time
kemarin pagi yesterday morning

2.194 While **nanti** and **tadi** can occur alone as adjuncts of relative time (see 2.191) they can also occur with nouns indicating parts of the day to indicate past or future within the 24 hour period; they can occur either before or after the noun for the time period, expressions with the adjunct last being more formal:

tadi malam, malam tadi last night
tadi pagi, pagi tadi this morning
nanti sore, sore nanti this evening

The only combination not possible is that of **nanti** and **pagi**. For 'tomorrow morning' **besok pagi** is used. **Tadi** is used after the period of the day referred to is past; **nanti** if the period has not yet arrived. Thus, if it is still morning at the moment of utterance the phrase **pagi ini** 'this morning' is used, rather than **tadi pagi**.

2.195 The periods of the day can be reduplicated to form adjuncts of time. Thus **pagi-pagi** 'early in the morning' from **pagi** 'morning':

Kita harus berangkat pagi-pagi.
We must set off early in the morning.

The other forms in this group are:

siang-siang early in the day
sore-sore late in the day
malam-malam late at night

Adjuncts of frequency

2.196 Many adjuncts indicate the frequency with which an action occurs, as illustrated by **berkali-kali** 'repeatedly' and **jarang** 'rarely':

Dia sudah berkali-kali dipanggil.
He's already been called repeatedly.
Ia jarang datang kemari.

She rarely comes here.

Other adjuncts of frequency include:
kadang-kadang sometimes
sekali-sekali occasionally, now and then
sering, sering kali, kerap, kerap kali, acap kali frequently, often
selalu, senantiasa always
berulang kali, berulang-ulang repeatedly
biasanya usually
umumnya usually, generally

The phrase **tidak pernah** 'never' occurs within the predicate and is illustrated in section 2.157.

The adjuncts **jarang** and **sering** can occur with several of the modifying adverbs mentioned in section 2.100:
Jarang sekali mereka makan di rumah.
They very rarely eat at home.
Makin sering mereka bertengkar.
They argue more and more frequently.

2.197 Numbers can occur with **kali** 'times' to indicate how many times the action occurs:
Kami sudah ke sana dua/beberapa kali.
We've been there twice/several times.

These expressions can be expanded to indicate how often within a certain time period the action occurs:
Dia menulis kepada istrinya dua kali seminggu.
He writes to his wife twice a week.
Sekali sebulan kita mengadakan rapat.
We hold a meeting once a month.

Sekali 'once' can occur after indication of the time period:
dua minggu sekali once every two weeks
setiap bulan sekali once every month

2.198 Preposition **untuk** followed by an ordinal number and **kali(nya)** indicates how many times in a sequence the action has occurred:

untuk pertama kali for the first time
untuk ketiga kalinya for the third time

Untuk pertama kalinya orang desa melihat pesawat terbang.
For the first time the village people saw an aeroplane.

The indefinite ordinal number **kesekian** occurs in such expressions:

Untuk kesekian kalinya mereka memprotes vonis hukuman mati.
For the umpteenth time they protested against the death sentence.

The time period within which the event has occurred that many times can also be mentioned:

untuk kedua kali bulan ini
For the second time this month

2.199 A time period with prefix **se-** (see 1.146) occurs alone to indicate that the action is done by a certain number of people or to a certain number of people or things once in such a period; the number is mentioned in the phrase identifying the people or things:

Lebih dari delapan ribu turis mengunjungi pulau itu sebulan.
More than eight thousand tourists visit the island a month.
Pabriknya menghasilkan empat puluh pesawat setahun.
His factory produces forty planes a year.

2.200 Nouns indicating a period of time can be preceded by **setiap, tiap-tiap, tiap, saban** 'every':

Setiap hari Selasa ada rapat.
Every Tuesday there is a meeting.

These phrases can be preceded by **hampir** 'almost':

hampir setiap jam almost every hour

Adjuncts of duration and distance

2.201 These indicate how long an action or state lasts (duration) or over what physical distance it occurs (distance).

2.202 Adjuncts of duration can be noun phrases containing a cardinal number indicating a period of time:

Kami tinggal di sana dua tahun.
We lived there two years.

Such phrases can also refer to physical distance:

Mereka berjalan tiga kilometer.
They walked three kilometers.

The adjunct can be preceded by several adverbs, including **hampir** 'almost' and **kira-kira** 'about':

Dia bekerja di Semarang hampir tiga bulan.
He worked in Semarang for almost three months.

2.203 Nouns indicating a period of time can be reduplicated and prefixed with **ber-** to indicate duration of an indefinite number of such time periods (see 1.144). This can optionally be followed by **lamanya** 'long (of time)' or preceded by **sejak** 'since':

Dia berkeliaran di sini berminggu-minggu.
He's been wandering around here for weeks.
Berjam-jam lamanya saya berusaha.
I've been trying for hours.
Jembatan desa itu sejak bertahun-tahun tidak pernah diperbaiki.
The village bridge has never been repaired for years.

These constructions can also refer to indefinite physical distances:

Kita sudah berjalan berkilo-kilo.
We've already walked for kilometers.

2.204 Other adjuncts of duration include:

lama long (of time)
sebentar, sesaat, sekilas, sekejap, sejenak a moment
sepanjang hari, sehari-harian all day long
sepanjang malam, semalam-malaman all night long

Tunggu sebentar!
Wait a moment!
Lama mereka duduk di situ.
They've been sitting there a long time.

Lama can take a number of modifying adverbs (see 2.100), or a negative:

agak lama rather long
tidak lama not long

Prepositions in adjuncts of duration

2.205 Prepositions of duration include:

sejak since
selama during, for (as long as)
sampai, hingga, sehingga until
untuk for

These can occur with phrases indicating time periods:

Mereka tinggal di Jakarta untuk/selama tiga setengah tahun.
They lived in Jakarta for three and a half years.
Ibu di rumah sakit sejak minggu lalu.
Mother has been in hospital since last week.

Untuk 'for' and **selama** 'for, during' can be omitted, as in the first example in section 2.202.

Sampai and **hingga** can also refer to physical extent:

Saya membaca sampai/hingga halaman tiga puluh.
I read up to page thirty.
Kami berjalan kaki sampai desa Jatisari.
We walked as far as the village of Jatisari.

There are a number of combinations of such prepositions with adjuncts of time (see 2.191) and with some conjunctions, such as **sementara** 'meanwhile':

Hingga kini mereka belum mengambil tindakan.
Until now they haven't taken action.
Untuk sementara dia harus berobat.
For the time being he must have medical treatment.

2.206 The prepositions **dekat** 'near' and **jauh dari** 'far from' indicate how close to or far from something the action takes place:

Mereka tinggal dekat kami.
They live near us.

Mereka bekerja jauh dari rumah.
They work a long way from home.

Jauh can be negated: **tidak jauh dari** 'not far from':
Ia dirawat di poliklinik tak jauh dari tempat itu.
She was nursed in a clinic not far from that place.

A measurement noun phrase (see 2.30) can also indicate the distance of the event from something else:
Dia berdiri beberapa meter dari tepi jalan.
He stood several meters from the edge of the road.

2.207 There are several combinations of prepositional phrases which indicate the time or distance within which the action occurs.

A prepositional phrase with **dari** 'from' or **sejak** 'since' can be followed by another prepositional phrase with **sampai, sampai dengan, hingga** 'until, up to':
Dia bekerja di Jakarta dari bulan Agustus sampai bulan Nopember.
He worked in Jakarta from August until November.
Dia sekantor dengan saya sejak awal tahun lalu hingga kini.
He's been in the same office as me from the beginning of last year until the present.
Saya membaca dari halaman dua belas sampai dengan halaman dua puluh.
I read from page twelve to page twenty.

A prepositional phrase beginning with **antara** 'between' can be followed by another prepositional phrase beginning with **dan** or **dengan** 'and':
Antara jam delapan dengan jam sebelas kami tidak ada di rumah.
Between eight and ten o'clock we won't be at home.
Ada perbedaan pendapat antara keluarga Hari dengan keluarga paman.
There is a difference of opinion between Hari's family and uncle's family.

Location

2.208 Adjuncts of location state where an event occurs. With verbs of motion they also refer to source and direction. These adjuncts are mostly prepositional phrases, discussed in sections 2.118–25.

Instrument and means

2.209 The preposition is **dengan** 'with; by':

Dia memotong kayu dengan parang.
He chopped the wood with a machete.
Dia mengirim surat dengan pos udara.
He sent the letter by airmail.

In some passive clauses **dengan** can be omitted (see 3.37).

Accompaniment

2.210 This indicates a person who accompanies the actor in performing an action. Prepositions include **dengan** 'with', **bersama, bersama dengan, beserta** 'along with':

Dia pergi ke Medan dengan istrinya.
He went to Medan with his wife.
Saya berlibur di Bali beserta/bersama dengan keluarga.
I holidayed in Bali together with my family.

Occurring by itself **bersama** 'together' indicates that the subject phrase refers to a number of people acting together:

Kami berangkat bersama.
We set off together.

Beneficiary

2.211 The adjunct indicates for whose benefit the action is performed. Prepositions are **untuk, bagi, buat** 'for' (see also 1.206–7 for examples):

Perlakuan istimewa dicadangkan untuk/buat/bagi para pengusaha.
Special treatment is reserved for business people.

Phrases with preposition **demi** 'for, for the sake of' can also be placed here:

Dia bekerja keras demi kesejahteraan keluarganya.
He works hard for the well-being of his family.

Reason

2.212 The main prepositions are **karena** 'because' and **sebab** 'because', which more commonly act as conjunctions (see 4.73). Other prepositions include **berkat** 'thanks to' and **gara-gara** 'as a result of, just because':

Banyak orang mati karena/sebab penyakit itu.
Many people died because of the disease.
Angkatan laut AS menghentikan operasi armadanya selama dua hari gara-gara sejumlah insiden.
The US navy has ceased operations for two days because of a number of incidents.
Berkat penemuan baru ilmu kedokteran penyakit itu betul-betul dapat disembuhkan.
Thanks to new discoveries of medical science that disease can really be cured.

Comparison

2.213 These adjuncts indicate that the subject is like some other person or thing in a characteristic or manner of doing something. These constructions are prepositional phrases. Prepositions include **seperti, bagai, sebagaimana, bagaikan, ibarat, laksana**:

Dia berjalan tergesa-gesa seperti orang yang dikejar hantu.
He walked hurriedly like a person pursued by a ghost.
Gigi di mulutnya kuat bagaikan baja.
The teeth in its mouth are strong like steel.

Exception

2.214 The preposition **kecuali** 'except' indicates who or what is not included in the action:

Tidak ada orang yang membantu dia kecuali ayahnya.
No one helped him except his father.

Subject matter

2.215 Preposition **tentang** 'about' indicates that the action concerns a particular subject or topic:

Menlu memberi keterangan tentang peristiwa itu.
The foreign minister gave an explanation about the matter.

More formally, **mengenai** 'about, concerning' can occur.

Focusing adjuncts

2.216 Focusing adjuncts identify the most important thing involved in what is being said. There are several types. Particle **pun** is also here included among the focusing adjuncts (see 2.221). The foregrounding particles **-lah** and **-kah** are discussed separately, **-lah** in sections 3.51-3 and **-kah** in sections 4.23-6.

Limiters

2.217 Limiters restrict what is said to the part of the clause on which attention is focused. Most limiters, including **hanya, cuma, semata-mata** 'only', precede the predicate. The focused item can vary depending on which word is given stress. In the following example focus would normally be on the fact that nothing was eated except bread. However, if **makan** 'eat' receives stress, the sentence can indicate that the only thing done to the bread was that it was eaten:

Tadi pagi saya hanya makan roti.
This morning I only ate bread.

The limiters **saja** and **melulu** 'just' follow the focused item:

Tadi pagi saya makan roti saja.
This morning I just ate bread.

Hanya and **saja** can combine to give additional emphasis:

Dia hanya makan roti saja.
He ate nothing but bread.

2.218 Some limiters restrict what is said particularly or mainly to the part of the clause focused, including **terutama** 'especially, particularly' (see also 2.63) and **khususnya** 'in particular':

Kenaikan pendapatan itu terutama berasal dari pajak.
The rise in income in particular comes from taxes.

Additives

2.219 **Juga** and **pula** 'also, too, as well', indicate that the focused part is an addition. The focused item can vary depending on what is given stress. Thus in the following example the focused item, the addition, may be **saya** 'I' (as well as someone else), **makan** 'eat' (as well as the performance of some other action, such as cooking), **nasi** 'rice' (as well as other food):

Saya makan nasi juga.
I eat rice too.

Justru

2.220 **Justru** emphasises that a particular component of the clause is the case rather than any other possibility, this being contrary to what the listener might expect. **Justru**, translatable 'precisely', usually precedes the focused component, always doing so if it occurs last in the clause:

Yang mengeluh justru Garuda.
It was precisely Garuda which complained.
Film-filmnya menjadi besar justru karena tema kecil.
His movies became big precisely because of their small themes.

Otherwise **justru** sometimes follows the focused element and is translatable 'the very one' or 'precisely':

Di perusahaan semacam ini pegawai yang baik justru menjadi bulan-bulanan fitnah.
In businesses like this good employees are the very ones who become the targets of slander.
Saya datang ke sini karena saya justru melihat kemungkinan di desa ini.
I came here precisely because I saw the possibilities in this village.

Particle pun

2.221 Particle **pun** acts as a focusing adjunct in some of its functions. It can also act like a linking adjunct, as discussed in section 2.222. Whatever its function, **pun** always follows

the subject of the clause and acts to emphasise it. Some people always write it attached to the preceding word.

A number of conjunctions, such as **meskipun** 'although' (see 4.76), and indefinite pronouns, such as **tidak seorangpun** 'no one' (see 2.91), have **pun** as their final component (rarely written as a separate word), which is clearly related in meaning to the particle **pun**.

2.222 Sometimes **pun** acts to link two clauses which have the same subject, being placed after the subject of the second clause. In earlier literary Malay this device was very common in constructions referring to a sequence of actions; in modern Indonesian it is much rarer:

Setelah Taifah mendengar kata perempuan itu, Taifah pun segera kembali ke rumahnya.
After Taifah heard what the woman said he returned to his house.
Maka sekali waktu baginda pergi berburu ke dalam hutan, maka baginda pun bertemu dengan seekor kijang ...
Once His Majesty went hunting in the forest. He came across a deer ...[5]

2.223 Two clauses can be linked by **pun** even if they have different subjects. **Pun** follows the subject of the second clause and emphasises it. The action of the second clause always follows the action of the first clause; **pun** can thus often be translated 'then' in such constructions:

Teriakan Sukijan cepat didengar dan para tetangga pun mulai berdatangan.
Sukijan's cries were quickly heard and the neighbours then began arriving.
Berdasarkan surat kecil ini, polisi pun mulus melacak alamat mereka.
On the basis of this brief letter the police were then easily able to trace their address.
Merasa gundah dan tak tahu apa yang harus dia lakukan, Presiden pun bertanya...

---

5 These two examples are taken from Slametmuljana (1969: 382).

Feeling depressed and not knowing what he should do, the President then asked...

2.224 While emphasising the preceding word or phrase **pun** can also indicate an addition, similar to **juga** and **pula** 'also' (see 2.219), which may accompany it:

Mereka ingin menyadarkan masyarakat bahwa mereka pun manusia juga.
They wish to make society aware that they too are human beings.

Indonesia adalah tanah yang subur. Tetapi bukan tanahnya saja; penduduknya pun demikian pula.
Indonesia is a fertile land. But it is not just the land; the people also are the same.

2.225 Very similar to its function mentioned in 2.224, **pun** can emphasise that an addition is something unexpected, translated 'even':

Bahan-bahan pangan menjadi mahal dan untuk memperolehnya pun sangat susah.
Foodstuffs have become expensive and even to obtain them is very difficult.

Desa Bangunarjo menjadi terkenal di seluruh kabupaten sampai pedagang kota pun datang ke sana.
The village of Bangunarjo has become well-known throughout the *kabupaten*, to the extent that even city traders come there.

The phrase **sedikitpun tidak** 'not even a little' is exemplified in section 2.140.

2.226 The subject can be emphasised by **pun** while the predicate is foregrounded by **-lah**. Examples are given in section 3.52.

3 CLAUSES

3.1 A clause is a construction which contains a predicate and, with some minor exceptions, a subject. A clause is either independent or dependent. An independent clause is one which can occur alone as a sentence (see 4.63). A dependent clause cannot occur alone but is always part of a larger structure. It may occur embedded within a lower-level structure such as a noun phrase. Dependent clauses may also combine with other clauses to form sentences; these are called subordinate clauses. All clause types are described in this chapter except subordinate clauses, which are discussed in Chapter Four.

A distinction can be made between basic and derived clauses. A basic clause is an independent clause which is described without reference to any other clause type. Derived clauses can best be described with reference to basic clauses; they can be either independent or dependent. Under this definition passive clauses are derived. However, they are discussed together with active clauses, beginning in section 3.26. Other derived clauses are described in sections 3.86 to 3.145.

BASIC CLAUSES

3.2 Basic clauses have two types of constituents: nuclear constituents and adjuncts. Nuclear constituents are obligatory to the clause, the clause being incomplete without them. For most clause types the nuclear constituents are subject and predicate. Subjects are discussed in section 3.3 and predicates in section 3.4. Other nuclear components of clauses are discussed elsewhere. For transitive verbal clauses object and, in some, secondary object, are nuclear. Further, complements are nuclear in a variety of clause types. Adjuncts are rarely essential to a construction. They give additional information on such matters as manner, time, place, and so on; their absence does not affect the basic meaning of the clause. Adjuncts are described in 2.165–226.
The normal word order of clause constituents is mentioned in section 3.41 and changes from that order are discussed in following sections. One of the functions of changing word order is to focus attention on a particular clause element. A number of particles also serve this function (see 3.50ff).

Subject

3.3 The subject of a clause is in general terms the thing which is being discussed, the 'theme' of the utterance. It is frequently something which has been mentioned previously, about which something new (the predicate) is said. As such it is usually definite (although this is not always the case – see 3.39).

The subject of a clause is usually a noun phrase or a pronoun phrase. A number of other constructions can also be subject, including a simple nominal clause (see 3.143) and a **bahwa** clause (see 3.108), as in the following examples:

- **Mencari pekerjaan di kota tidak begitu mudah.**
  Finding work in the city isn't very easy.
  Bahwa dia suka pada Siti bukan rahasia lagi.
  That he likes Siti isn't a secret any more.

A number of other constructions can function as subject of a clause; examples are given in the sections dealing with those constructions.

Some clauses have no subject; these are discussed in section 3.15.

Predicate types

3.4 The structure of predicate phrases is described in sections 2.132–61. The predicate is the pivot of the clause and it determines much of the rest of the clause structure. Clause types are identified by the element functioning as the predicate centre. Clauses are either verbal, having a verb as their predicate centre, or non-verbal, having one of a number of non-verbal constructions as their predicate centre. The major types of non-verbal clause are discussed in sections 3.5–15. Copulas, which occur in non-verbal clauses, are discussed in section 3.14. Verbal clauses are discussed in sections 3.16–40.

Noun clauses

3.5 Noun clauses have a noun phrase as their predicate centre. Noun clauses are equative; they state that the person or thing expressed by the predicate is the same as the person or thing expressed by the subject:

Dia guru. She is a teacher.

Ini keputusan saya. This is my decision.

Noun clauses are negated by **bukan** (see 2.134):

Dia bukan guru.

She isn't a teacher.

3.6 Most sub-types of noun can occur in the predicate, including demonstrative pronouns (see 2.65) and personal pronouns (see 2.66). Also included are simple nominal clauses (see 3.143), **bahwa** clauses (see 3.108), and **untuk** clauses (see 3.113). That these function as nouns can be seen from the fact that the relationship between subject and predicate is equative, not one of actor and action. Further, the negative is **bukan** and the subject and predicate are frequently separated by copula **adalah** or **ialah** (see 3.14), which cannot occur in verbal clauses:

Pekerjaannya tiap hari ialah memasak di dapur.

Her work every day is to cook in the kitchen.

Kesukaannya bukan membaca novel.
His past time is not reading novels.
Hakikatnya ialah bahwa saya benar.
The truth is that I am correct.
Maksudnya adalah untuk mendidik rakyat Australia.
His purpose is to educate the Australian people.

3.7 In a few cases where a noun occurs in the predicate the construction is not a noun clause, there being no equative relationship; **tidak** is the negative, not **bukan**. Thus **sekolah** 'school' in the following example is acting as a verb, being equivalent to **bersekolah** 'go to school':

Anak saya (tidak) sekolah di Rawamangun.
My children (do not) go to school in Rawamangun.

Quantity clauses

3.8 In such constructions the predicate states the number or measurement of the subject.

The predicate can be a cardinal number (see 2.107):

Anaknya lima.
He has five children. (Literally: His children are five.)
Anjing saya dua.
I have two dogs.

Other numbers can occur in the predicate, including some indefinite numbers (see 2.113) and numbers such as those described in 1.161:

Uangnya banyak/sedikit.
He has a lot of/little money. (Literally: His money is a lot/a little.)
Ternak petani ini beratus-ratus.
This farmer has hundreds of animals. (Literally: The livestock of this farmer are hundreds.)

The predicate can be a number followed by a classifier or partitive or it can be a partitive of the type mentioned in section 1.162:

Anggota panitia itu sepuluh orang.

That committee has ten members. (Literally: The members of that committee are ten + classifier.)
Jumlah wesel yang dikirim sembilan ribu tujuh ratus lembar.
The number of money orders sent was nine thousand seven hundred.
Kue di meja lima potong.
There are five slices of cake on the table. (Literally: The cake on the table is five pieces.)
tanahnya berhektar-hektar.
He has (many) hectares of land.

A measurement noun phrase (see 2.30) can occur as predicate of a quantity clause. The subject of such a clause can be a nominalised adjective of measure (see 3.140):
Beratnya tujuh puluh kilo.
His weight is seventy kilos.
Tinggi saya seratus tujuh puluh delapan (sentimeter).
My height is one hundred and seventy eight (centimeters).
Panjang sisinya lima belas meter.
The length of its sides is 15 metres.

Quantity clauses can be regarded as a subtype of noun clause. Negation is with **bukan**:
Anaknya bukan dua orang.
He doesn't have two children.

Adjective clauses

3.9 Adjective phrases (see 2.99) can occur in the predicate centre:
Risikonya akan berat sekali.
The risk will be very great.
Minuman itu harus dingin.
The drinks must be cold.

If an adjective clause is negated **tidak** usually occurs immediately before the adjective phrase:
Mencari pekerjaan di kota tidak begitu mudah.
Looking for work in the city isn't very easy.

Sometimes **tidak** can occur directly before the adjective. This is discussed in section 2.104.

3.10 An adjective clause can contain a referent phrase (see 2.105) and have a simple nominal clause (see 3.143) as its subject. If the simple nominal clause immediately follows the referent phrase the referent noun may appear to be the subject of the nominal clause:

Sulit bagi kita mencari pekerjaan di kota.
It is difficult for us getting work in the city.

However, the referent phrase **bagi kita** 'for us' can be omitted and the simple nominal clause can either precede the predicate or be preceded by **untuk**, these variations showing that **kita** 'we' is not acting as subject of the simple nominal clause. Examples of these constructions are given in section 3.115.

3.11 Adjective clauses containing a referent phrase and having as subject a simple nominal clause or an **untuk** clause bear a transformational relationship to adjective clauses containing a verbal clause as complement (as discussed in 3.85). The first construction below has **bagi saya** 'for me' as a referent phrase within the predicate and **(untuk) mengingat kata-kata baru ini** 'to remember these new words' as subject; the second has **kata-kata baru ini** 'these new words' as subject and **(untuk) saya ingat** 'for me to remember' as complement:

Sukar bagi saya (untuk) mengingat kata-kata baru ini.
It is hard for me to remember these new words/
Remembering these new words is hard for me.
Kata-kata baru ini sukar (untuk) saya ingat.
These new words are hard for me to remember.

Prepositional clauses

3.12 Some of the prepositional phrases which can occur as clause adjuncts (see 2.165ff) can also occur as predicate centres. The following examples illustrate a variety of clauses with prepositional phrases in their predicates:

Kalung ini untuk ibu.
This necklace is for mother.

Kehidupan mereka tidak tanpa harapan.
Their lives aren't without hope.
Tidak semua perusahaan seperti ini.
Not all companies are like this.
Dia dengan pacarnya sekarang.
He's with his girl friend now.
Penyakitnya bukan karena itu.
His illness is not because of that.
Mereka di Jakarta sekarang.
They are in Jakarta now.

Some prepositional clauses can be negated by either **bukan** or **tidak**. Examples are given in section 2.136.

3.13 The prepositional phrase **sama dengan** 'equals, the same as' occurs with arithmetic operations (see 2.111):
Enam tambah dua sama dengan delapan.
Six plus two equals eight.
Sepuluh kurang lima sama dengan lima.
Ten minus five equals five.

The copulas *adalah* and *ialah*

3.14 The copulas, which correspond to what are sometimes called link verbs in grammars of other languages, are **adalah** and **ialah**. They occur optionally between the subject and predicate in non-verbal clauses. The two forms are interchangeable except that **ialah** only occurs after third person subjects.

Copulas occur most commonly in noun clauses and some Indonesians regard them as unacceptable in any other clause types. However, they are readily used by other speakers in some other non-verbal clauses, especially in adjective clauses. Copulas mark the division between subject and predicate. They are not obligatory and are least likely to occur in short constructions such as **Ayah guru** 'Father is a teacher'.

They are most common in noun clauses where either the subject or predicate is long, in which case they break up a string of nouns and add a smoothness to the construction:

Ayah Tomo adalah pegawai Bank Indonesia.
Tomo's father is an employee of the Bank of Indonesia.
Kain kebaya ialah pakaian wanita Jawa.
The *kain kebaya* is the clothing of Javanese women.

Copulas are also frequently used if the predicate is a nominalised verb, **bahwa** clause or **untuk** clause (see 3.6 for examples).

The following examples illustrate copulas in adjective and prepositional clauses:
Setiap calon pembeli adalah penting.
Each prospective purchaser is important.
Satu-satunya air yang ada adalah dari telaga.
The only water there is is from the lake.

Although they can occur with locative predicates, the copulas do not occur before preposition **di**. Instead **ada** occurs (see 3.58).

The copulas **adalah** and **ialah** are not verbs; they precede the entire predicate including a negative. The combination of a copula and negative is, however, rare:
Bahasa Indonesia adalah bukan bahasa yang penampil subyek.
Indonesian is not a subject-prominent language.
Pernyataan ketua koperasi itu adalah tidak benar.
The statement by the chairman of the cooperative is not correct.

Several other words are sometimes referred to as copulas because they serve to link two noun phrases. However, these words, including **merupakan** 'be, constitute' and **menjadi** 'be, become', are full verbs and can be negated.

Subjectless clauses

3.15 Some clauses describe states or events for which there is no subject. They correspond to English constructions which have 'impersonal it' as subject (which is sometimes called a 'dummy subject' because it does not actually refer to

or identify anything; it simply occurs because English clause structure demands the presence of a subject).

Such clauses frequently refer to natural states:

Hujan sekarang.
It's raining now.
Dingin sekali.
It's very cold.
Sepi di sini.
It's quiet here.

Some people use words such as **hari** 'day' or **hawa** 'weather' as a subject in some of these constructions:

Hari hujan.
It's raining.
Hawa panas.
The weather's hot.

Subjectless clauses can also refer to time:

Sudah jam tujuh.
It's already seven o'clock.

Verbal clauses

3.16 Verbal clauses have a verb as their predicate centre. Verbal clauses display greater variety and complexity than non-verbal constructions; special consideration is required for transitivity (see 3.18–25), voice (see 3.26–40) and word order (3.41–9). The verb **ada** has some unique characteristics and is discussed separately in sections 3.54–60.

Further, a consideration of grammatical roles and semantic roles is important for an understanding of verbal clauses. This topic is mentioned in section 3.17.

Participant roles

3.17 Components of the clause such as subject and object refer to grammatical relationships. However, the semantic relationship between these elements and the predicate can vary. For instance, in the clause **Ali memukul John** 'Ali hits John', the subject **Ali** refers to the participant who carries out

the action. In the clause **Ali dipukul John** 'Ali is hit by John', the subject identifies the participant to which something is done, the patient.

The major participants, or semantic roles, are:

Actor : The one who carries out the action. The actor is expressed by the subject in an active clause, such as **Ali** in **Ali menolong saya** 'Ali helps me'. It occurs as agent in a passive clause, which is optionally marked by **oleh** 'by' (see 3.27): **Saya ditolong (oleh) Ali** 'I am helped by Ali'.

Patient : The patient, also called the goal, is the participant which is moved or affected by the action. It occurs as object in most active clauses, such as **Ali** in **Mereka menolong Ali** 'They help Ali'. It occurs as subject in the passive of such constructions: **Ali ditolong oleh mereka** 'Ali is helped by them'. With ditransitive verbs the patient can occur as the secondary object (see 3.20). Thus, the patient **uang** 'money' occurs as secondary object in **Saya memberi dia uang** 'I give him money'.

Recipient : This is the person at whom the action is directed. It can follow prepositions **kepada** and **pada** 'to'. With some verbs, especially **-i** verbs (see 1.212), it can occur as object, such as **dia** 'he' in **Saya memberi dia uang** 'I give him money'. In passives of such constructions it occurs as subject: **Dia diberi uang** 'He is given money'.

Location : This is the place where the action occurs or the place from which or to which the action is directed. It is normally marked by a prepositional phrase. However, it can be the object with **-i** verbs and some simple transitive verbs, such as **kebun** 'garden' in **Mereka menanami kebun** 'They plant the garden'. In passives of such constructions it occurs as subject: **Kebun ditanami** 'The garden is planted'.

Beneficiary : This is the person for whose benefit an action is performed. It is usually marked by preposition **untuk** 'for'. With benefactive **-kan** verbs (see 1.206) it occurs as object, such as **Ali** in **Saya membelikan Ali buku** 'I buy

Ali a book'. In passives of such constructions it occurs as subject: **Ali dibelikan buku** 'Ali is bought a book'.

Instrument : This is the thing with which the action is performed. It is usually marked by preposition **dengan** 'with', such as **tali** 'rope' in **Dia mengikat anjing dengan tali** 'He tied up the dog with a rope'. This participant can sometimes occur as object, that is with 'instrumental' **-kan** (see 1.205). However, it is probably best to recognise a reinterpretation of the role of the participant in this case. That is, in the construction **Dia mengikatkan tali ke anjing** 'He tied the rope to the dog', **tali** is best considered as having the role of patient.

Transitive and intransitive

3.18 If an action or event involves only one participant it is expressed by an intransitive clause. An intransitive clause has two nuclear components, a subject, which indicates the actor, and a predicate, which contains an intransitive verb (see 1.166ff):

Mereka bekerja.
They are working.
Siti menangis.
Siti is crying.

Intransitive clauses frequently contain one or more adjuncts (see 2.165); the following includes adjuncts of time, location and manner:

Setiap hari mereka bekerja keras di pabrik.
Every day they work hard in the factory.

3.19 In addition to the actor some actions or events involve another person or thing which is affected by the action. This is expressed by a noun phrase following the verb, called the object. Clauses which have an object are called transitive clauses and verbs which occur in these clauses are called transitive verbs (see 1.186ff).

Saya membantu ibu.
I am helping mother.
Ali menjual mobilnya.

Ali sold his car.

A transitive clause minimally consists of a subject, a predicate, and an object, as in the above examples. In addition, a number of adjuncts can occur. In the following construction an adjunct of time and a recipient occur:

Tahun lalu Ali menjual mobilnya kepada Hasan.
Last year Ali sold his car to Hasan.

Ditransitive clauses

3.20 The object may express one of a number of participants. In the examples in 3.19 it expresses a patient. It may also express a beneficiary (see 1.206) or a recipient (see 1.212). In such clauses another noun phrase, the secondary object, must occur to express the patient:

Mereka mengirimi kami surat.
They sent us a letter.
Ibu membuatkan Siti rok.
Mother made Siti a skirt.

In the above examples the final noun, **surat** 'letter' in the first sentence and **rok** 'skirt' in the second, is the secondary object. Clauses which require two objects are usually called ditransitive clauses. In grammars of English, and in some grammars of Indonesian, the person who receives (such as **kami** in the first example above) or benefits (such as **Siti** in the second example above) is usually called the indirect object, while the patient (**surat** and **rok**) is called the direct object. In this description the noun immediately following the verb is called the primary object and the other noun is called the secondary object. As explained in sections 1.206 and 1.229, the clause can be rearranged so that the secondary object becomes the primary object; in this case the recipient or beneficiary must be expressed by a prepositional phrase (see also the examples in 3.17).

Pseudo-intransitive verbs

3.21 While most transitive verbs require the object to be expressed there are some whose object need not be expressed. The object of such verbs can be omitted when it is obvious or unimportant, as in:

Wendy sedang membaca.
Wendy is reading.

The action expressed by **membaca** 'read' carries over to an object. However, interest is often on the fact that the action is being performed rather than on what it is being done to; in such cases the object is not expressed, as in the above example. Such verbs are sometimes called intransitive. However, a real intransitive verb refers to an action which does not carry over to another person or thing and involves only the actor, such as **tidur** 'sleep' and **berdiri** 'stand'. Verbs like **membaca** 'read' describe actions which have an object, even if it is not expressed. They are therefore transitive and have a passive form. Some grammars call them pseudo-intransitive verbs. A large number of transitive verbs can occur without an object being expressed, including:

makan eat	**menulis** write
minum drink	**melukis** paint
menyapu sweep	**menggambar** draw
memasak cook	**menyeterika** iron
mencangkul hoe	**menggergaji** saw

All verbs acting in this way are simple transitive verbs (see 1.187). Verbs with affixes **per-**, **-kan** or **-i** cannot omit the object. Where suffix **-kan** and **-i** are optional (see 1.210 and 1.224) only the variant without the suffix can occur without an object:

Anak-anak sedang menyanyikan lagu.
The children are singing a song.
Anak-anak sedang menyanyi (lagu).
The children are singing (a song).

Kami bisa menyeberangi sungai di sini.
We can cross the river here.
Kami bisa menyeberang (sungai) di sini.
We can cross (the river) here.

In English the list of pseudo-intransitive verbs is longer than in Indonesian; an English pseudo-intransitive verb sometimes corresponds to both a transitive and intransitive verb in Indonesian. Thus pseudo-intransitive 'enter' corresponds to either transitive **memasuki** or intransitive **masuk**:

Dia memasuki kamar.
He entered the room.
Dia masuk.
He entered.

Formal distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs

3.22 In Indonesian a clear distinction is made between intransitive and transitive verbs. By its form a verb almost always identifies itself as transitive or intransitive. Exceptions are intransitive verbs with prefix **meN-**, such as **menangis** 'cry', which 'look like' simple transitive verbs, and a very few intransitive verbs which have a suffix (see 3.25). In English many verbs function both transitively and intransitively. In Indonesian this is almost never the case; there is almost always some difference in form between an intransitive and transitive verb having the same base. Each (a) construction below is an intransitive clause; each (b) construction is the transitive counterpart. The verbs always differ, while in English they do not:

a. **Anaknya mandi.**
His child is bathing.
b. **Dia memandikan anaknya.**
He is bathing his child.

a. **Bis berhenti di depan gedung sekolah.**
The bus stopped in front of the school.
b. **Sopir menghentikan bis di depan gedung sekolah.**
The driver stopped the bus in front of the school.

In the above examples the transitive verbs have causative suffix **-kan**. Other examples are given in section 1.198. In some cases transitive and intransitive verbs differ only in their prefix, the intransitive verb, sometimes indicating reflexive action, having **ber-** and the transitive verb having **meN-**, such as **berubah** '(undergo) change' and **mengubah** 'change (something)':

Wajah Jakarta sudah berubah.
The face of Jakarta has changed.
Gedung-gedung pencakar langit sudah mengubah wajah Jakarta.
Sky scrapers have changed the face of Jakarta.

Other pairs include:

bercukur shave : **mencukur** shave (someone/something)
bergaruk(-garuk) scratch : **menggaruk** scratch (something)
berputar turn, revolve : **memutar** turn, revolve (something)
berhias dress up : **menghias** decorate, dress (something) up
berias put on make up : **merias** dress (someone) up
berbentuk be in the form of : **membentuk** form (something)
bergantung hang, be suspended : **menggantung** hang (something) up

Transitive and intransitive in Indonesian and English

3.23 Some intransitive verbs correspond to transitive verbs in English. Corresponding to the object of the English verb is a prepositional phrase, as in the first example below (see also 1.219), or a complement, as in the second example. Although resembling an object, the complement cannot become the subject in a passive construction (see 3.63).

Pak Parno cinta akan istrinya.
Mr Parno loves his wife.
Mereka belajar bahasa Jepang.
They are learning Japanese.

3.24 Some Indonesian transitive verbs are translated by English verbs which take a following preposition (called phrasal verbs in English), such as **mencari** 'look for':

Ali mencari adiknya di pasar.
Ali looked for his sister at the market.

Others, with exemplary objects in parentheses, include:

melamar (pekerjaan) apply for (work)
meminta (uang) ask for (money)
membayar (barang) pay for (goods)
melihat (foto) look at (photo)
memikirkan (hal itu) think about (that matter)
meminang (gadis) propose to (a girl)

Intransitive verbs with a suffix

3.25 A few verbs with a suffix are not transitive; they do not have a passive form and the following noun is therefore a complement, not an object. These include **merupakan** 'constitute, be' and **menyerupai** 'resemble':

Pulau Bali merupakan tujuan yang paling populer untuk turis asing.
Bali is the most popular destination for foreign tourists.
Dia menyerupai ayahnya.
He resembles his father.

The verbs **mencukupi** and **memadai** 'satisfy; be sufficient' can occur with or without a complement:

Gaji mereka tidak mencukupi.
Their salary is not sufficient.
Gaji itu tidak mencukupi kebutuhan mereka.
The salary does not fulfil their needs.

Voice: active and passive

3.26 The person or thing we want to talk about is usually expressed as the subject of the clause. If we want to talk about the actor we make it the subject of the verb and use an active verb. Active transitive verbs have prefix **meN-**. The construction is called an active clause or said to be in active voice.

The other participant in the action is expressed by the object in an active clause. If we want to focus attention on this person or thing we make it the subject of the passive form of the verb. The construction is called a passive clause or is said to be in passive voice. The actor is expressed by an agent phrase which follows the passive verb. A passive verb usually has prefix **di-**. The first example below is an active construction in which the subject is the actor; the second is a passive construction in which the subject is the patient:

Mereka sudah menjemput Tomo.
They have met Tomo.
Tomo sudah dijemput oleh mereka.
Tomo has been met by them.

Some grammars of Indonesian do not use the terms active and passive, instead using such terms as subject and object construction or subjective and objective focus. This is because there are differences between the constructions in Indonesian and the active and passive in European languages such as English, in both structure and function. Nevertheless, there are also important similarities, and the relationship between the two constructions is often similar to the relationship between active and passive in English, allowing the same terms to be used to describe them. The structure of a passive clause can be described in terms of a transformation from the corresponding active.

The passive construction is more frequent in Indonesian than in English. Where a passive translation would sound unnatural, translation by an active construction is usually given in the following sections.

The Indonesian passive has two different forms, called here 'passive type one' and 'passive type two'[1]. The choice of passive type is determined by the actor.

Passive Type One

3.27 In this type of passive the actor is third person, that is pronoun **dia** or **mereka**, or a noun. Passive type one is also used if no actor is expressed. The structure of an active clause and its corresponding passive type one are set out as follows:

Active voice:

Subject (actor) + **meN-**verb + Object (patient)

Passive voice:

Subject (patient) + **di-**verb + (**oleh**) + Agent (actor)

These structures are illustrated by the following active clause and its passive transformation:

Dia menjemput saya.

He met me.

---

1 The terms 'passive type one' and 'passive type two' are used by Dardjowidjojo (1978).

Saya dijemput oleh dia.
I was met by him.

In the above example the actor is **dia** 'he'. The following illustrate passives with the other possible actors, **mereka**, a noun or no actor expressed:

Dia sudah diberi uang itu oleh mereka.
He has already been given the money by them.
Surat ini ditulis oleh Tomo.
This letter was written by Tomo.
Barang ini akan dikirim ke Jepang.
These goods will be sent to Japan.

A third person singular agent can be expressed by either **dia** or **-nya**. They are optionally preceded by **oleh** 'by':

Saya dijemputnya/olehnya.
Saya dijemput dia/oleh dia.
I was met by him.

Oleh is always optional except when the agent does not immediately follow the verb, in which case it is obligatory. This occurs when another clause element comes between the verb and agent or when the agent is placed before the verb to receive highlighting (see 3.47).

In passive type one the components of the predicate (see 2.132ff) apart from the verb remain unchanged:

Mereka sudah dijemputnya.
They have already been met by him.
Mereka tidak harus dijemputnya.
They do not have to be met by him.

While **makan** 'eat', **minum** 'drink' and a few other transitive verbs usually occur without prefix **meN-** in active voice (see 1.186), they take **di-** in the passive: **dimakan** 'eaten', **diminum** 'drunk'. The verb **mengerti** 'understand' retains its prefix **meN-** in the passive (see 1.186): **dimengerti** 'understood'.

Passive Type Two

3.28 In passive type two the agent is a pronoun or pronoun substitute (see 2.67). The agent phrase comes

before the verb, which does not have a prefix. The structure of passive type two is thus:

Subject (patient) + Agent (actor) + Verb

The following example shows the relationship between an active clause and a passive type two clause:

Kami menjemput dia.
We met him.
Dia kami jemput.
He was met by us.

No other component of the clause can come between the agent and the verb in passive type two. In particular, components of the predicate phrase (see 2.132ff), such as negative and temporal marker, come before the agent in passive type two:

Buku ini tidak akan kami baca.
This book will not be read by us.

If the agent is **aku** 'I' or **kamu** 'you', the bound forms, **ku-** and **kau-** respectively (see 2.71), usually occur:

Buku ini sudah kubaca.
I've read this book.
Buku ini harus kaubaca.
You must read this book.

Choosing Passive Type

3.29 When an active clause is transformed into a passive two things must be considered in deciding if the passive is to be passive type one or two: Is the actor first, second or third person? and: Is the actor a pronoun (including a pronoun substitute) or is it a noun?[2]
Nouns and pronouns can be distinguished as follows:

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2 Although sentences with **... oleh saya** and so on (passive type one with first or second person agent) are regarded as ungrammatical they do occur in spontaneous speech, even among educated speakers, especially if the agent is added as an afterthought.

	first person	second person	third person	
singular	**saya**	**kamu** etc.	**dia**	**A**
plural	**kami, kita**	**B**	**mereka**	nouns

Passive type one is used where the actor is in box A and passive type two is used where the actor is in box B.

3.30 Either passive type one or passive type two can be used if the actor is **dia** or **mereka**; they occur in both boxes in the diagram in section 3.29. This is because they are third person, allowing passive type one, and also pronouns, allowing passive type two:

Buku sejarah ini belum dibacanya.
Buku sejarah ini belum dia baca.
He hasn't read this history book yet.
Buku-buku ini sudah dibaca oleh mereka.
Buku-buku ini sudah mereka baca.
They have read these books.

3.31 As mentioned in section 2.67, kinship terms such as **bapak** 'father', **ibu** 'mother' and personal names can occur as pronoun substitutes. They can refer to the addressee, meaning 'you', or to the speaker, meaning 'I'. When they occur as agent passive type two is used:

Buku itu sudah Tini kembalikan.
I (Tini) have returned the book.
Surat ini harus bapak tandatangani.
You must sign this letter.

If a third person is being spoken about then **Tini** and **bapak** would be third person nouns and passive type one would be used:

Buku itu sudah dikembalikan oleh Tini.
The book has been returned by Tini.
Surat ini harus ditandatangani bapak.
This letter has to be signed by father.

3.32 With **ter-** verbs (see 1.265ff) and **ke-...-an** verbs (see 1.276ff) which allow an agent, only passive type one occurs, even if the agent is first or second person. If the agent is a pronoun, including a third person pronoun, **oleh** is obligatory. Examples are given in sections 1.269, 1.272 and 1.283. One exception is with **teringat** 'remember' (see 1.271).

Further changes from active to passive

3.33 Typically, transformation from an active construction to a passive involves no more than the changes described in sections 3.26–31. Components of the clause other than subject, verb and object are not affected.

3.34 If there are two objects (see 3.20) it is only the primary object – the one immediately following the verb – which becomes the subject of the passive. The following examples illustrate active clauses with benefactive **-kan** and locative **-i** and their passive transformations:

Dia membelikan adiknya buku.
He bought his brother a book.
Adiknya dibelikannya buku.
His brother was bought a book by him.

Kepala kantor menyerahi kami tugas itu.
The office head handed us that task.
Kami diserahi kepala kantor tugas itu.
We were handed that task by the office head.

The final noun phrase in each of the above examples – the secondary object – may be subject of a passive clause, but only one which is a transformation of an active clause in which that noun phrase is primary object. The following sentences correspond to those above except that the secondary object has become the primary object:

Dia membeli buku itu untuk adiknya.
He bought that book for his brother.
Buku itu dibelinya untuk adiknya.
That book was bought by him for his brother.

Kepala kantor menyerahkan tugas itu kepada kami.
The office head handed that task to us.

Tugas itu deserahkan oleh kepala kantor kepada kami.
That task was handed by the office head to us.

3.35 In general a transformation from active to passive has no effect on suffixes **-i** and **-kan**, which are retained when an active verb is transformed to a passive. However, there are some cases in which their presence or absence differs between active and passive.

With some verbs **-kan** is optional in active voice but obligatory in passive voice, including verbs with bases **ajar** 'teach', **kirim** 'send', **beri** 'give', **nyanyi** 'sing':

Dia mengajar(kan) bahasa Indonesia.
He teaches Indonesian.
Bahasa Indonesia diajarkan di sini.
Indonesian is taught here.

Dia sudah memberi(kan) uang itu kepada adiknya.
He has given the money to his brother.
Uang itu sudah diberikan kepada adiknya.
The money has been given to his brother.

Mereka menyanyi(kan) lagu Indonesia.
They are singing an Indonesian song.
Lagu apa yang mereka nyanyikan?
What song are they singing?

On the other hand **-kan** is obligatory with some active verbs, such as **meninggalkan** 'leave' and **memaksudkan** 'mean', but can be omitted in the passive:

Dia meninggalkan tasnya di kantin.
She left her bag (deliberately) in the canteen.
Tasnya ditinggal(kan) di kantin.
Her bag was left (deliberately) in the canteen.

Dia memaksudkan kalimat ini.
He means this sentence.
Kalimat ini yang dimaksud.
This is the sentence which is meant.

3.36 A number of **-kan** verbs with emotive adjective bases are usually causative in active voice but indicate that the actor

undergoes the emotion in the passive. These are discussed in section 1.197.

3.37 Preposition **dengan** 'with' can be omitted in a passive clause if the subject marks the recipient. In almost all cases the verb has locative **-i** and no agent is expressed:

Aku didandani pakaian pengantin.
I was adorned in bridal clothes.
Kamar-kamar di hotel ini dilengkapi sistem pendingin.
Rooms in this hotel are provided with a cooling system.
Tanah itu ditanami pohon jati.
The land was planted with teak trees.

The verb can be a simple transitive verb but the relationship of the subject must nevertheless be that of recipient:

Tangannya diikat tali plastik.
His hands were bound with plastic cord.

If an agent is expressed it must follow the instrument, otherwise **dengan** must occur:

Kantor *Monitor* dilempari batu oleh sekelompok mahasiswa Islam.
The *Monitor* office was pelted with stones by a group of Moslem students.
Ladang itu ditanami oleh Pak Mendur dengan ubi.
The gardens were planted by Mr Mendur with cassava.

Dengan cannot be omitted if the subject marks the patient:

Nasi boleh dimakan dengan tangan.
Rice can be eaten by hand.

Uses of the passive

3.38 As in English, passive constructions allow the speaker to avoid mentioning the actor. This is sometimes necessary or desired because the actor is not known, is obvious, is not important, or because the action is something which can be done by anyone:

Sepedanya dicuri tadi malam.
His car was stolen last night.
Saya disuruh pergi.
I was ordered to go.

Mayatnya ditemukan dekat rel kereta api.
His body was discovered near the railway line.
Mudah-mudahan segala dosa orang ini akan diampuni.
Hopefully all this person's sins will be forgiven.
Buku macam ini dapat dipinjam dari perpustakaan pusat.
Books like this can be borrowed from the central library.

3.39 While every active transitive verb has a passive counterpart, it is not the case that every active construction can be transformed into a natural or acceptable passive construction. If the object is indefinite it usually cannot be the subject of a passive verb. Thus most Indonesians would not accept a passive transformation of the following active clauses:

Dia membaca sebuah buku.
He's reading a book.
Dia melihat seseorang.
He saw someone.

The choice between active and passive voice is a choice between actor and patient as subject. Subject selection is primarily a stylistic matter, which means that in a given context one choice may be more appropriate than another, but in other contexts more than one choice might be possible. Thus, the choice between active and passive constructions cannot usually be explained by inflexible rules. Sometimes, as when no actor is expressed, a passive construction must be used, even though the patient is indefinite:

Seorang gadis kecil, berumur empat tahun, ditemukan tadi pagi di depan rumah sakit...
A little girl, aged four, was discovered this morning in front of the hospital... [3]
Sebuah rencana untuk mengembangkan dan memanfaatkan gas alam sedang disiapkan.
A plan to develop and use natural gas is being prepared.

In most language styles passive constructions are far more common in Indonesian than in English. Consequently an

3 This example and preceding comments are based on Poedjosoedarmo (1986: 3).

Indonesian passive can often only be translated into natural English by an active construction, as in several of the examples in previous sections, this being one of the reasons why some grammarians have been reluctant to apply the terms active and passive to Indonesian. The following passive sentences are natural in Indonesian but cannot be translated by English passives:

Anaknya sendiri tidak pernah dicarikannya jodoh.
She had never looked for a marriage partner for her own child.

Surat kabar ini sudah licin tandas saya baca sampai iklan-iklannya.
I've completely read this newspaper right down to the advertisements.

Cuma ini yang saya peroleh hari ini.
This is all I've got today.

Frequently in narrative discourse a series of actions carried out by the same actor is expressed by a string of passive clauses, sometimes following an introductory active clause. In such sequences there is a focus of interest on the series of actions rather than on the participants in the action. Some of the clauses in the following examples include word order changes discussed in 3.41ff:

Dia datang membawa susu dua gelas. Segelas diletakkannya di atas meja. Yang lain dibawanya padaku.
She came carrying two glasses of milk. She put one glass on the table. The other she brought to me.

Dimatikannya lampu-lampu dalam kamar tidur itu, lalu dengan meraba-raba didekatinya tempat tidur ...
He turned off the lights in the bedroom then, groping his way, he approached the bed ...

Ia menimang-nimang kaki ayamnya, sebentar hendak ditaruhnya juga di piringnya, sebentar hendak dibuangnya. Akhirnya, setelah diawasinya benar-benar tak ada bagian yang boleh dimakan, barulah diletakkannya di lantai ...[4]
He played with his chicken leg, one moment going to put it on the plate, the next going to throw it away. Finally, but

4 This example is quoted by Slametmulyana (1969: 345)

only after carefully observing that there was nothing which could be eaten, he placed it on the floor...

Reflexive passives

3.40 A reflexive phrase (see 2.162) can be the subject of a passive clause. In this case **diri** cannot occur alone; constructions like **melarikan diri** 'flee' (see 2.163) cannot be transformed into the passive. The subject usually follows the verb:

Dibandingkannya dirinya dengan raja.
He compared himself with the king.

Word order in clauses

3.41 The normal or standard order of constituents in a clause is subject + predicate. In a transitive verbal clause the normal order is subject + predicate + object. If there are two objects (see 3.20) the normal order is subject + verb + primary object + secondary object. In a passive clause the normal order is subject + verb + agent. If there is a secondary object this freely precedes or follows the agent. In passive type two (see 3.28) the order is subject + agent + verb.

While some adjuncts tend to occur in a particular position within the clause, such as before the subject or after the predicate, they are much freer to move than nuclear components and it is not unusual for them to appear in a variety of positions. An adjunct which usually occurs in one position does not receive any emphasis when in that position. If shifted elsewhere attention is drawn to it. Thus the adverb **dengan cepat** 'fast' occurs in its usual position after the verb in the first clause below, where it receives no emphasis. In the second clause it is placed before the subject, where it receives emphasis:

Michael lari ke toko dengan cepat.
Michael ran to the shop quickly.
Dengan cepat Michael lari ke toko.
Quickly Michael ran to the shop.

Nuclear clause components usually have a fixed position in relation to other nuclear components. When they are moved from this position attention is focused on them.

Changes from normal word order, or inversion, of nuclear clause components is discussed in the following sections. A few cases of word order change are also mentioned elsewhere when it is necessary in the description of a particular construction.

Placing the predicate before the subject

3.42 The predicate can occur before the subject in a non-verbal clause, such as in a noun clause or adjective clause. In this case the predicate receives highlighting:

Mahasiswa Unpad dia.
She is an Unpad (University of Padjadjaran) student.
O! Sombong kau, Ki Demang.
Oh! you are arrogant, Ki Demang.
Cantik sekali gadis itu.
That girl is very pretty.

3.43 An intransitive verb can also occur before the subject. When shifted to pre-subject position a verb freqently takes foregrounding particle **-lah** (see 3.51):

Lalu datanglah seorang musyafir.
Then there came a traveller.
Di sini hati saya hancur. Menangislah saya dengan sangat sedih.
Here my heart broke. I cried very sadly.

The emphasis given to the verb when it is placed before the subject is to some extent caught by the translation of the first example above: **Datanglah seorang musyafir** 'There came a traveller', although this device is not always possible in English.

3.44 A transitive verb, whether active or passive, can also occur before the subject. A passive verb frequently precedes its subject to take foregrounding, often with **-lah** (see 3.51). Very frequently in such constructions the verb is preceded by an adjunct, which gives a kind of balance to the construction,

the verb still occurring in the 'middle' of the clause. Similar constructions occur in English:

Di atas gunung telah didirikan sebuah antene raksasa.
On top of the mountain has been built a giant antenna.
Pada hari itu terciptalah suatu negara Indonesia merdeka.
On that day there was created a free Indonesia.

Such balancing is not, however, obligatory:

Sudah dibuatkan sepatu khusus bagi dia.
Special shoes have been made for him.

3.45 Frequently a long subject is placed after the verb. In the following example the subject is the noun phrase beginning with **alat-alat** and continuing to the end of the sentence:

Sekarang di toko Tuan Ong tersedia alat-alat yang menarik perhatian orang desa yang berkunjung ke kota.
Now in Mr Ong's store are available implements which attract the attention of villagers visiting the town.

In such cases the verb is not placed before the subject for highlighting, but rather the subject is placed last to avoid a stylistically clumsy construction.

When the subject is a **bahwa** clause (see 3.112), an **untuk** clause (see 3.115), a **supaya/agar** clause (see 3.127), a nominal clause (see 3.143), or an indirect question (see 4.29), it usually follows the predicate. Such subjects are frequently long. The placing of such subjects after the predicate occurs also in non-verbal clauses, as in the last example below. The occurrence of 'it' at the beginning of corresponding constructions in English is discussed in section 3.112:

Diputuskan bahwa saya harus dibuang.
It was decided that I must be driven out.
Sulit untuk menurunkan harga.
It is difficult to lower prices.
Diserukan agar dilancarkan aksi-aksi protes internasional di semua pusat operasi perusahaan itu.
It was urged that international protest actions be launched in all centres of operation of the company.

Mulai tahun 1970 diwajibkan mengenakan tali pengaman.
Beginning in 1970 the wearing of seat belts became compulsory.
Masih diragukan apakah keputusan ini dapat diterima.
It is still doubted whether this decision can be accepted.
Bukan maksud saya menggurui ayah.
It's not my intention to lecture father.

3.46 In general, the longer a subject the more likely it is to follow the predicate. Nevertheless, a long subject may retain its usual position before the verb. In the following example the subject, **jemaat Katolik Jawa yang pertama** 'the first Javanese Catholic congregation', occurs before the verb:

Di mata air Sendangsono pada tanggal tiga puluh Desember 1904 jemaat Katolik Jawa yang pertama dipermandikan.
In the Sendangsono spring on the thirtieth of December 1904 the first Javanese Catholic congregation was baptised.

The position of the agent in a passive clause

3.47 The agent of a passive normally comes immediately after the verb. However, it can be preceded by several clause elements, in which case **oleh** is obligatory.

A secondary object can occur before or after the agent:

Kami diserahi kepala kantor tugas itu.
Kami diserahi tugas itu oleh kepala kantor.
We were handed that task by the office head.

A number of adjuncts, such as the adjunct of location in the following example, can also precede the agent:

Kami dibawa ke bioskop oleh ayah.
We were taken to the movies by father.

If the speaker wants to treat the agent of a passive verb as important information it can go before the verb. Since it is out of its standard position the agent phrase must be preceded by **oleh** (see 3.27). It can precede or follow the subject:

Oleh seorang bekas penderita kusta Pak Hena disuruh ke rumah sakit lepra.

By a former leprosy sufferer Mr Hena was told to go to the leprosy hospital.
Oleh orang tuanya ia diberi pembantu.
By his parents he was given an assistant.
Musikus itu oleh pengadilan Selandia Baru divonis tujuh tahun penjara.
The musician was sentenced to seven years jail by the New Zealand court.

Position of the object

3.48 The object of an active verb cannot occur before the verb. Occurrence of the patient participant (see 3.17) before the verb requires it to be the subject of a passive verb. This rule also applies in derived constructions, as discussed in sections 3.85, 3.91 and 3.99.

If the object of a verb is long it is usually placed last in the clause, following other clause components such as adjuncts and secondary object. In the following example the object, the phrase beginning with **rekannya** 'his colleague', follows the instrument:

Andre Agassi mengipasi dengan handuk rekannya John McEnroe, yang kepanasan.
Andre Agassi fanned with a towel his colleague John McEnroe, who was overcome by the heat.

If the object is a nominalised construction, such as a **bahwa** clause, a clause beginning with **untuk** or **supaya**, or an indirect question beginning with **apakah** (see 4.30), it is also placed last in the clause. In the following examples the object follows a locative phrase beginning with **kepada** 'to':

Pemerintah mengumumkan kepada petani bahwa harga beras akan naik.
The government announced to the farmers that the price of rice would rise.
Dia menyarankan kepada Tuti supaya berolah raga.
He advised Tuti to play sport.
Kita akan menanyakan kepada masyarakat apakah mereka akan menerima kita kembali.
We will ask the community if they will accept us back.

Several changes occurring together

3.49 Changes in word order to focus attention on a particular component of a clause and to avoid a stilted construction may occur together. In the following passive construction the agent is fronted for highlighting while the subject, being exceptionally long, is placed after the verb:

Selain itu, oleh desa dikembangkan pula usaha di bidang industri rumah, seperti pertenunan.
Apart from that, by the village have been developed also endeavours in the area of home industries, such as weaving.

Foregrounding particles

3.50 Two particles are recognised here as foregrounding particles, **-lah** and **-kah**. The latter occurs only in questions and is discussed in sections 4.23–6. Particle **pun** is usually grouped with **-lah** in discussions of Indonesian grammar. Here it is grouped with the focusing adjuncts (see 2.221ff).

Particle -lah

3.51 Although referred to as a particle, **-lah** is always written attached to the preceding word. Particle **-lah** has been called, among other things, a 'predicative marker' and a 'foreground marker'. Its most common function is to mark the predicate when the predicate is out of its normal position, usually when it is placed before the subject. Since the predicate is strongly foregrounded or highlighted in this position, **-lah** is associated with that foregrounding, as in the following examples (other examples occur in section 3.43):

Kira-kira tahun 1400 masuklah pengaruh Islam di Indonesia.
About the year 1400 the influence of Islam entered Indonesia.

Sesudah mengucapkan kata-kata itu, bangkitlah dia dari kursi dan terus pergi tanpa mengucapkan kata-kata pamit.
After uttering those words he got up from his chair and straightaway went, without taking leave.

Tertipulah kamu!
You were tricked!

Makin yakinlah aku akan kebenaran firman Tuhan.

I am increasingly convinced of the truth of God's commandments.

Particle **-lah** attaches to the first word of the predicate, which may be a negative, temporal marker or modal:

Dapatlah disimpulkan bahwa serangan itu direncanakan lama sebelumnya.
It can be concluded that the attack was planned well in advance.

Tidaklah pantas kalau pemburuan kanguru masih tetap diizinkan.
It is not appropriate if kangaroo hunting is permitted to continue.

Particle **-lah** can also attach to negatives to give emphasis (or foregrounding), even if the predicate is in its normal position:

Hubungan antara kedua petinggi itu saat ini tidaklah terlalu baik.
Relations between the two important figures at the moment are not too good.

Hutan lindung Kapuk bukanlah hutan lindung pertama yang berubah fungsi.
The Kapuk protected forest is not the first protected forest to undergo a change of function.

It sometimes also occurs with other words, such as modifying adverbs, to emphasise them without the predicate being fronted:

Hubungan Indonesia dan Amerika sangatlah dekat.
Relations between Indonesia and America are very close.

-Lah is never obligatory; it is particularly common in certain constructions where the predicate typically precedes the subject, such as identifying clauses (see 3.92) and certain imperatives (see 4.40), and is discussed separately for such constructions.

3.52 A predicate marked by **-lah** does not occur before the subject if this is marked for emphasis by **pun** (see 2.221ff):

Dan penonton menyambut dengan tepuk tangan yang meriah. Kemudian layar pun tutuplah.
And the audience applauded (our performance) with cheerful clapping. Afterwards the curtain closed.
Anak-anak mulai bubar. Dan yang tinggal di ruang kelas enam, tempat kami disunati, hanyalah orang tua-tua. Mereka pun pulanglah seorang demi seorang ...
The children dispersed. And only the elders remained in class room six, where we were circumsized. Then they too went home one by one ...

3.53 Besides occurring within the predicate **-lah** can be attached to a clause adjunct to foreground it. The adjunct always occurs first in the clause with **-lah** attached to its last word. Such constructions are usually translated by cleft sentences (see 3.92) in English:

Sejak tahun itulah Indonesia secara resmi menjadi jajahan Belanda.
It was from that year that Indonesia officially became a Dutch colony.
Beginilah terungkapkan cinta dan kesetiaan terhadap para leluhur.
In this way can be expressed love and faithfulness towards the ancestors.
Di desalah terdapat masa depan bangsa kita.
It is in the villages that the future of our people is found.

The verb *ada*

3.54 **Ada** is an intransitive verb which differs significantly from other verbs and deserves special comment. It has a number of functions.

3.55 In many of its occurrences **ada** means 'exist':

Tuhan ada.
God exists.

3.56 Very similar to the meaning 'exist' is the meaning translated by 'there' followed by the appropriate form of the verb 'to be'. In this construction the subject must follow the predicate:

Ada koran di meja.
There is a newspaper on the table.

Like other verbs, **ada** can be preceded by negative, temporal markers and modals:

Di Indonesia tidak ada kanguru.
In Indonesia there are no kangaroos.
Akan ada orang yang berdemonstrasi di luar kantornya.
There will be people demonstrating outside his office.

When **banyak** occurs **ada** is optional:

Tidak (ada) banyak mobil di jalan hari ini.
There aren't many cars on the road today.

This construction also corresponds to English expressions with 'some (are)':

Ada yang besar, ada yang kecil.
Some are big, some are small. (literally: There are big ones, there are small ones.)

3.57 In some constructions **ada** means 'have, own', occurring with an obligatory complement (see 3.61), which indicates the thing owned. This function of **ada** is most common in colloquial style:

Saya tidak ada uang.
I don't have any money.

3.58 It occurs before the locative preposition **di** as a linking verb meaning 'be'. In this context it is optional:

Ayah (ada) di kantor.
Father is in the office.

In this context **ada** cannot be equated with **adalah**, which occurs as a copula before non-verbal predicates (see 3.14), because **ada**, unlike **adalah**, is a verb and can be preceded by such predicate elements as **tidak** 'not':

Ayah tidak ada di kantor.
Father isn't in the office.

The verb **berada** can occur instead of **ada** in this context:

Sekarang kita berada di sebuah desa di Jawa Tengah.
Now we are in a village in Central Java.

3.59 Similar to the construction in 3.58 is occurrence of **ada** to indicate that someone has the subject in his or her possession. The possessor is indicated in a phrase with preposition **pada**:

Buku Ali ada pada saya. I've got Ali's book.

3.60 It can occur before a verb as an intensifier; in this case **ada** probably cannot itself be regarded as being a verb, its role being similar to that of emphatic 'do' in English:

Ia ada menerima surat itu.
He did receive the letter.
Adakah engkau merasai perubahan sesudah disunati?
Did you feel a change after being circumcised?

Complements

3.61 A complement is a clause component which resembles an object but which cannot become the subject of a passive clause. Complements occur in transitive and intransitive clauses and also in adjective clauses. A complement can be an adjective phrase, a noun phrase or a verbal clause. A complement is almost always obligatory to the construction in which it occurs. Thus **Ibu mulai** 'Mother began' is incomplete because it does not state what mother began doing. The verb **mulai** requires a verbal complement: **Ibu mulai berbicara** 'Mother began to speak'. Only some **ber-** verbs, mentioned in section 3.64, have optional complements.

For convenience of description, noun and adjective complements are mentioned in sections 3.62–71, separate from verbal complements, which are described in sections 3.72–6. Complements introduced by **untuk** are discussed in 3.77–9, complements introduced by **supaya** or **agar** in section 3.80 and those introduced by **sebagai** in 3.82–3. Complements of adjective clauses are discussed separately in sections 3.83–5.

Noun and adjective complements

3.62 Noun and adjective complements can occur with both intransitive and transitive verbs. Occurrence with intransitive verbs is described in sections 3.63–70 and with transitive verbs in section 3.71. Complement noun phrases include **bahwa** clauses (see 3.66), and indirect questions (see 3.67).

Noun and adjective complements of intransitive verbs

3.63 In Indonesian a transitive and an intransitive verb sometimes have the same meaning or similar meanings:

Banyak siswa belajar bahasa Perancis.
Banyak siswa mempelajari bahasa Perancis.
Many students study French.

Only the transitive verb has a passive counterpart:

Bahasa Perancis dipelajari banyak siswa.
French is studied by many students.

In the above example **bahasa Perancis** 'French' is the object of the transitive verb **mempelajari** 'study' and can be the subject of its passive transformation **dipelajari** 'studied'. However, **belajar** is an intransitive verb with no passive counterpart. Following **belajar** the phrase **bahasa Perancis** is a complement, not an object.

Most intransitive verbs with complements correspond to English transitive verbs with objects. Thus **belajar** translates the English transitive verbs 'study' and 'learn'.

3.64 Among intransitive verbs with noun phrase complements are numerous **ber-** verbs. Thus the verb **beternak** 'breed animals' can take a noun complement which specifies which particular animals are bred, such as **beternak ayam** 'breed chickens'. In section 1.176 are mentioned **ber-** verbs which have a compound base, such as **bercelana panjang** 'wear long trousers'. The bases of such verbs also occur as noun phrases, in this case **celana panjang** 'long trousers', and thus do not constitute a verb and complement. On the other hand, **ternak ayam** is not a possible phrase and

cannot be regarded as a compound base; **ayam** must be treated as a complement to the verb **beternak**.

Many of the verbs in this group take an optional complement, especially those with noun bases. Thus **beternak** can occur at the end of a sentence without a following noun: **Ayah saya beternak** 'My father breeds animals'. Others, especially those with verb bases, must take a complement, such as **bertukar (pikiran)** 'exchange (ideas)'. Other examples, with illustrative complements in parentheses are:

berbicara (bahasa Jepang) speak (Japanese)
bermain (olah raga) play (sport)
berpakaian (piyama) wear (pyjamas)
bernyanyi (lagu) sing (a song)
berisi (air) contain (water)
berpindah (tempat) change (places), move (house)
berdagang (barang-barang berharga) trade (in valuable goods)
berumur (delapan tahun) be aged (eight years)
bernama (Idrus) be named (Idrus)
bertanam (jagung) plant (corn)
berburu (rusa) hunt (deer)
berjual (ikan) sell (fish), engage in selling (fish) for a living

Many of these complements refer to a class of things in general, such as in the above example, where **ayam** refers to poultry in general, not to a specific chicken. Some of these forms contrast with transitive verbs which take an object which can refer to a specific instance. Thus **bertanam (jagung)** 'plant (corn)' refers to a general state or occupation, whereas **menanam jagung (itu)** 'plant (that) corn' may refer to a single action; **berburu rusa** means 'carry out the activity of hunting deer', and cannot refer to the hunting of a particular deer, whereas **memburu rusa (itu)** 'hunt (that) deer' can.

3.65 Besides **ber-** verbs, many simple and **meN-** intransitive verbs take noun phrases as complements. With these verbs the complement is obligatory. The following examples include illustrative complements:

menjadi (presiden) become (president)

punya (uang) have (money)
suka (kopi) like (coffee)
mau (teh) want (tea)
tahu (hal itu) know (that matter)
merangkap (menteri keuangan) double as (minister of finance)
menyangkut (masalah politik) involve (political matters)

Several verbs with suffixes do not have a passive form and are thus intransitive, occurring with a complement. These are mentioned in section 3.25.

A number of intransitive verbs can take a complement noun phrase instead of a prepositional noun phrase (see also 1.219). Thus **ke dalam** 'into' can be omitted from the following:

Dia masuk (ke dalam) rumah.
He entered the house.

Apart from simple primary verbs a number of secondary verbs take complements. These include some reciprocal verbs (see 1.248 and 1.255), **ber-...-kan** verbs (see 1.262ff), and some **ke-...-an** verbs (see 1.276ff).

3.66 Intransitive report verbs can have **bahwa** clauses as complements (see 3.111):

Saya yakin bahwa dia pencuri.
I am sure that he is a thief.
Saya berharap bahwa anda berhasil.
I hope that you succeed.

This group of verbs includes:

tahu know
percaya believe
ingat remember
berpikir think
berkata say
sadar be aware
berpendapat have the opinion
lupa forget
beranggapan have the opinion, consider

A few of these verbs, such as **berkata** 'say' and **berpikir** 'think', can alternatively have a direct quote as complement (see 3.95).

3.67 Indirect questions (see 4.27) can also occur as complements:

Saya tidak tahu apakah dia akan datang.
I don't know whether he will come.

3.68 With intransitive verbs reciprocity can be indicated by the complement **satu sama lain** (literally: 'one with the other'):

Mereka kenal satu sama lain.
They know each other.

3.69 The number of intransitive verbs which can occur with adjective complements is limited:

Mereka merasa puas.
They feel satisfied.
Kakinya terasa sakit.
His foot feels sore.

Other verbs include **kelihatan** 'looks, seems' and **kedengaran** 'sounds, seems' (see 1.283).

3.70 The verb **menjadi** 'be; become' can have both noun and adjective complements:

Suprapto sudah lama menjadi guru.
Suprapto has been a teacher for a long time.
Bapak menjadi marah.
Father became angry.

Noun and adjective complements of transitive verbs

3.71 Some transitive verbs allow a complement to follow the object; this is usually called an object complement. The relationship between the object and object complement is that of subject and predicate. The complement can be an adjective phrase or a noun phrase:

Perbuatannya menjadikan ibunya sedih.
His actions made his mother sad.
Mereka menganggapnya munafik.
They consider him a hypocrite.

Some verbs, such as **membuat** 'make' and **mengira** 'consider, reckon', can take either an adjective phrase or noun phrase as complement:

Dia membuat saya marah/asistennya.
He made me angry/his assistant.
Orang sekampung mengira dia gila/pencuri.
The village people consider him mad/a thief.

Verbal complements

3.72 Some verbs can have a verbal clause as a complement. In this situation two verbs occur within the one clause. To distinguish them the terms main verb and complement verb are used here. In the clause **Ibu mulai berbicara** 'Mother began to speak' the main verb (sometimes called the superordinate verb) is **mulai**, while the complement verb (sometimes called the subordinate verb) is **berbicara**. Verbal complements follow an intransitive verb, as discussed in section 3.73. They follow the object of a transitive verb, as discussed in section 3.76.

Verbal complements of intransitive verbs

3.73 The verbal complement of an intransitive verb can itself be intransitive, as in the first two examples below, or transitive, as in the last two examples. The main verb and the complement verb have the same subject:

Saya sudah berhenti merokok.
I've stopped smoking.
Siti mulai menangis.
Siti began to cry.
Siti ikut membantu ayah.
Siti joined in helping father.
Dia lupa menulis namanya.
He forgot to write his name.

If the complement verb is transitive it can be active, as in the above examples, or passive:

Keputusan pemerintah mulai dibicarakan.
The government decision began to be discussed.
Tesisnya selesai diperbaiki.
His thesis is finished being corrected.

If the complement verb is active the subject is the actor of the complement verb as well as of the main verb; **Siti** is actor of the main verb **mulai** 'begin' and of the complement verb **menangis** 'cry' in **Siti mulai menangis** 'Siti began to cry'. If the complement verb is passive the subject is its patient; **keputusan pemerintah** 'the government decision' is patient of **dibicarakan** 'discussed' in **Keputusan pemerintah mulai dibicarakan** 'The government decision began to be discussed'.

3.74 When some verbs, including **berhasil** 'succeed' and **gagal** 'fail', occur with a passive complement verb, they express what the actor of the complement verb succeeds or fails in doing, not what their own subject succeeds or fails in doing:

Tujuh anggota komplotan berhasil diringkus polisi.
Police succeeded in catching seven members of the gang.
Dia gagal diselamatkan.
(They) failed to save him.

3.75 If **mau** 'want' and **ingin** 'want, wish' have a passive complement ambiguity occurs as to whether it is the subject or the agent of the complement who wants the action to occur. While the first sentence below is unambiguous the second means either that Bill wants to be helped or that Ali wants to help him:

Ali mau menolong Bill.
Ali wants to help Bill.
Bill mau ditolong Ali.
Bill wants to be helped by Ali. or Ali wants to help Bill.

In practice context makes the meaning clear. Thus, while the first sentence below is ambiguous without a context, meaning either that **beliau** doesn't want to be interviewed or that **saya** does not want to interview, the second sentence occurs in a context which indicates that **beliau** is the one who does not want to be interviewed:

Beliau tidak mau saya wawancarai.
I don't want to interview him. or He doesn't want me to interview him.

Kalau beliau tidak mau saya wawancarai, tidak apa-apa.
If he doesn't want me to interview him it doesn't matter.

The first sentence below would automatically be interpreted as meaning that the agent of **bunuh** 'kill' wants to perform the act, while the second, which occurs with question intonation, clearly means that the subject wants the act to be performed:

Kau mau kubunuh.
I want to kill you.
Kau mau kubunuh, ya?
You want me to kill you, eh?

If the subject is inanimate the one who wants is clearly the agent of the complement:

Ini bagian kalimat yang ingin ditegaskannya.
This is the part of the sentence which he wanted to emphasise.

Verbal complements of transitive verbs

3.76 As mentioned in section 3.71, the complement of a transitive verb follows the object and is sometimes called an object complement. The object of the main verb is subject of the complement verb. Thus in the first example below **anaknya** 'his children' is object of **menyuruh** and subject of **pergi**:

Suwono menyuruh anaknya pergi ke sekolah.
Suwono ordered his children to go to school.
Polisi menghentikan para demonstran memasuki kampus.
The police stopped the demonstrators entering the campus.

As the main verb is transitive it can be made passive. Its object becomes the subject in the normal way (see 3.26). However, the complement remains after the main verb. In such constructions the subject is patient of the main verb and actor of the complement verb. The first two examples below of passive main verbs with complements are preceded by their active counterparts. The final example has a transitive **ke-...-an** verb (see 1.283):

Dia menyuruh saya pergi.

He ordered me to go.
Saya disuruh pergi.
I was ordered to go.

Mereka menugasi saya melakukan observasi.
They assigned me to carry out observations.
Saya ditugasi mereka melakukan observasi.
I was assigned by them to carry out observations.

Bangkai mobil dibiarkan bertumpuk.
Car wrecks were allowed to pile up.
Pak Sarif ditunjuk pemerintah mengurus pabrik itu.
Mr Sarif was appointed by the government to manage the factory.
Pak Sujud kelihatan membakar kemenyan.
Mr Sujud could be seen burning incense.

*Complements with **untuk***

3.77 Some complement verbs refer to an action which occurs in the future with respect to the main verb, which can be intransitive or transitive. The complement can optionally be preceded by **untuk**. **Untuk** clauses are discussed in 3.113ff.

3.78 Although **untuk** can always be omitted from a complement (see 3.116) it cannot always be added; many transitive verbs do not allow an **untuk** clause as complement. These include verbs whose complement verb refers to an action taking place at the same time as the main verb. In this category are verbs of perception, such as **melihat** 'see', **mendengar** 'hear', **mengamati** 'observe', and numerous other verbs, such as **mempergoki** 'catch'. These verbs take an object complement as described in 3.76:

Polisi mengamatinya menelpon sejumlah orang dari terminal.
Police observed him telephone a number of people from the terminal.
Kami mempergoki dia sedang mencoba membuka lemari besi.
We caught him trying to open a safe.

3.79 Complements with **untuk** must be distinguished from subordinate clauses beginning with **untuk** (and **guna**). The complement is an essential part of the clause; if it is omitted the construction is incomplete. On the other hand a subordinate clause, while adding further information, is not obligatory. A further difference is that **untuk** is optional before a complement but obligatory before a subordinate clause. Subordinate clauses introduced by **untuk** are discussed in 4.74.

*Complements with **supaya** and **agar***

3.80 Transitive and intransitive verbs which indicate that the subject intends someone else to perform an action can take a complement introduced by **supaya**, **agar** or, more formally, **agar supaya** 'that, so that'. Verbs which can take a complement introduced by **supaya/agar** include:

ingin want, desire
berharap hope
hendak want
mau want
berkeinginan desire
berpesan instruct
berusaha endeavour
bercita-cita desire
mendesak urge
mengajak invite, urge
menuntut demand
menginginkan want, desire
mengharapkan hope, expect
menginstruksikan instruct
menghendaki want
menyuruh order, tell
mempersilakan invite
memerintakhan instruct
meng(h)imbau appeal
menyerukan appeal
menasihati advise
(me)mohon request
(me)minta request
mengusulkan suggest

Clauses introduced by **supaya/agar** are discussed in 3.119ff.

3.81 Complements with **supaya/agar** must be distinguished from subordinate clauses beginning with the same conjunction. The complement is an essential part of the clause; if it is omitted the construction is incomplete. On the other hand a subordinate clause, while adding further information, is not obligatory. Subordinate clauses introduced by **supaya** or **agar** are discussed in 4.74.

*Complements with **sebagai***

3.82 While similar to an adjunct, a prepositional phrase with **sebagai** is essential to the meaning of the clause, which is therefore incomplete without it. As such these constructions are complements, which link directly to either the subject or object of the clause.

A complement with **sebagai** can occur with some intransitive verbs to indicate what role or function the subject has:

Dia bekerja di sana sebagai tukang kayu.
He works there as a carpenter.
Bahasa Indonesia berfungsi sebagai alat pemersatu bangsa.
Indonesian functions as the national unifier.

The complement can occur with some transitive verbs and describes the role of the patient or what the patient's role is thought to be. The patient can be object of an active clause or subject of a passive clause:

Harian *Kompas* memandang keputusan pemerintah sebagai langkah mundur.
The daily *Kompas* regards the government decision as a backward step.
Panitia memilih Djunawi sebagai ketua sidang pleno.
The committee chose Djunawi as the president of the general session.
Mereka dicap sebagai bandit.
They were branded as bandits.
Kacong dianggap polisi sebagai penjahat.
Kacong was considered by the police to be a criminal.

Complements of adjective clauses

3.83 There are two types of verbal complement in adjectival clauses. In one type the subject of the main clause is also actor of the complement verb, discussed in 3.84. In the other the subject of the main clause stands as patient of the complement verb, discussed in 3.85.

3.84 A limited number of adjectives can take an active verb as a complement. The adjective then indicates the manner in which the subject performs the action. In these

constructions the adjective is the predicate centre and can be negated; it does not function as an adverb within a verbal clause. The following verb usually occurs as a '*to*-infinitive' verb in the English translation. Adjectives which can take such a complement include **pandai** 'clever, capable' (translated in this construction as 'able, capable'), **berani** 'brave' (translated in this construction as 'dare'), and **gembira** 'delighted':

Ratna pandai berenang.
Ratna is able to swim.
Dia tidak berani membantah pendapat guru.
He wouldn't dare contradict the teacher's opinion.
Saya gembira mendengar berita itu.
I was delighted to hear the news.

Other adjectives able to take such complements include:

takut afraid	**malu** embarrassed
senang happy	**bangga** proud
segan reluctant	**cenderung** inclined

3.85 A limited number of adjectives can take a verbal complement in which the verb is passive and the adjective describes the way in which the subject noun undergoes the action. Adjectives occurring in this construction include **sukar** 'difficult', **sulit** 'difficult' and **mudah** 'easy'. **Untuk** optionally begins the complement:

Tulisan saudara sulit (untuk) dibaca.
Your writing is hard to read.
Kata-kata baru ini sukar (untuk) saya ingat.
These new words are hard for me to remember.
Jawabannya tidak mudah dimengerti.
His answer wasn't easy to understand.

Other adjectives taking such complements include:

menarik interesting	**enak** pleasant
gampang easy	**patut** appropriate
baik good	

In Indonesian a verb must be passive if the subject noun identifies its patient. This is also the case where the verb occurs at a lower level, as in the above constructions. Thus, in

the first example above **tulisan** 'writing' stands as patient of the verb 'read'; the verb must therefore be in its passive form **dibaca**. (This rule does not apply in English, where the verb is usually active, as in the above examples.) This rule also applies in relative clauses, and is further discussed in relation to such constructions (see 3.99).

These constructions can be transformed into the constructions discussed in sections 3.10–11.

The modifying adverbs **terlalu** and **cukup** are possible, in which case many more adjectives can occur than those given above. **Untuk** obligatorily introduces the complement:

Sepatu ini terlalu mahal untuk kami beli.
These shoes are too expensive for us to buy.
Papaya ini sudah cukup masak untuk dimakan.
This papaw is already ripe enough to eat.

DERIVED CLAUSES

3.86 Derived clauses are constructions which are best described with reference to changes undergone by basic clauses. Some derived clauses are independent, that is, they can occur alone as a sentence. These are topic-comment clauses (see 3.87), identifying clauses (see 3.92) and direct quote clauses (see 3.95). Others are dependent, that is, they cannot occur alone as a sentence. These include relative clauses (see 3.97), **bahwa** clauses (see 3.108), **untuk** clauses (see 3.113), **supaya/agar** clauses (see 3.119), and nominalised clauses (see 3.130).

Topic-comment clauses

3.87 In addition to the nuclear phrases occurring in basic clauses (see 3.2), a topic-comment clause contains an extra nuclear component, the topic. Topic-comment clauses are used to highlight a particular noun phrase. This phrase is taken from the basic clause and placed before it, becoming the topic. The rest of the clause is then a comment on the topic. The place from which the topic is taken is marked by **-nya**. There are two types of topic-comment clause, those

whose topic is based on a possessor, called here possessor topic-comment clauses, and those whose topic is based on an object, called here object topic-comment clauses.

Possessor topic-comment clauses

3.88 This construction is based on a clause whose subject noun phrase contains a possessor. The possessor is placed before the clause, becoming the topic. Its place in the subject is marked by **-nya**. This process is illustrated by the following example, the basic clause being given first, then the topic comment clause:

Nama sopir itu Pak Ali.
The name of that driver is Mr Ali.
Sopir itu namanya Pak Ali.
Concerning that driver, his name is Mr Ali.

In the basic clause above the subject is **nama sopir itu** 'the name of that driver'. The possessor, **sopir itu** 'that driver', becomes the topic, its place being marked by **-nya**. Thus in the topic-comment clause the topic is **sopir itu** 'that driver' and the comment is **namanya Pak Ali** 'his name is Mr Ali'. A topic-comment clause has the force of 'as for [topic], ...' or 'concerning [topic], ...', as in the above example. Such a construction is, however, frequently unnatural in English, although used in the above example to convey the force of this construction. The emphasis on the topic is accompanied by a rise in pitch (rising intonation). A slight pause may also occur after the topic; in writing a comma can but need not follow the topic. The translations of the following examples do not necessarily convey the force of the Indonesian construction:

Jakarta wajahnya sudah mulai berubah.
The face of Jakarta has begun to change.
Para pegawai gajinya tidak akan naik.
The salary of the employees will not rise.
Teman saya, anaknya tiga.
My friend, he has three children.
Mahasiswa itu, rambutnya tidak pernah disisir.
That student, his hair is never combed.

The place of the topic in the subject is always marked by **-nya**, even if it is plural:

Mereka adiknya dipanggil polisi.
(As for them) their brother has been summoned by the police.

Some Indonesians accept a first or second person topic, such as the following, while others reject this construction:[5]

Saya asalnya dari Semarang.
(As for me) I'm from Semarang.

In informal speech it is common to put **kalau** before the topic:

Kalau Pak Yanto, anaknya sudah kawin.
As for Mr Yanto, his children are already married.

The topic can be a demonstrative pronoun (see 2.65), as in the following example. In this case the basic clause can be regarded as containing a possessive noun, such as **nama benda ini** 'the name of this thing':

Ini namanya Monas, Monumen Nasional.
This is named Monas, the National Monument. (literally: (As for) this, its name is Monas, the National Monument.)

3.89 With some possessor topic-comment clauses foregrounding of the predicate is also possible, by placing it before the subject. Thus the first example above could be changed to:

Jakarta sudah mulai berubah wajahnya.
The face of Jakarta has begun to change.

If the predicate precedes the subject a comma is not placed after the topic in writing and in speech there is usually no pause. The predicate can only precede the subject if the subject is something inalienably possessed by the topic. This is shown by the following example. In the first construction the thing possessed by the topic **Pak Ali** is **mata** 'eyes'. Eyes are something inalienably possessed, something intrinsic to or

5 This example is from Dardjowidjojo (1978: 165). Such constructions are rejected by Verhaar (1984: 62), among others.

part of the possessor. In the first construction therefore the subject can occur after the predicate. In the second construction the thing possessed is **istri** 'wife'. However, a wife is not something inalienably possessed, it is not part of the possessor; **Pak Ali** remains the same without a wife. Consequently the subject of this construction cannot follow the predicate:[6]

Pak Ali matanya dioperasi.
Pak Ali dioperasi matanya.
Mr Ali's eyes were operated on.
Pak Ali istrinya dioperasi.
Mr Ali's wife was operated on.

The following examples of topic-comment constructions with inverted subject and predicate all refer to inalienable possession:

Mereka itu kolot pikirannya.
Their thinking is old-fashioned.
Dilihat dari bawah, orang itu seperti semut saja besarnya.
Seen from below, those people look as big as ants.
(literally: ... those people, their size is like an ant.)
Golongan itu bertambah hari bertambah kuat suaranya.
The voice of that group gets stronger by the day.

3.90 The pronouns formed from collective numbers, as in 2.94, and indefinite numbers, as in 2.95, can occur as subject of a topic-comment construction whose topic identifies the noun they refer to. Although there is not a possessor-possessed relationship between topic and subject the construction is based on analogy with the possessor topic-comment form:

Saudagar itu ketiga-tiganya berasal dari Jepara.
All three of those merchants come from Jepara.
Anak ini semuanya berasal dari Nusa Tenggara.
All of these children come from Nusa Tenggara.

6 The relationship between alienable and inalienable possession and the possibility of word order change in such constructions is discussed by Verhaar (1978)

Object topic-comment clauses

3.91 These derive from active transitive clauses. The object of the basic clause goes to the front as topic, while its place after the verb is taken by **-nya**. The first clause below is a basic active construction and the second is the topic-comment clause derived from it:

Saya belum menerima surat itu.
I haven't received that letter yet.
Surat itu, saya belum menerimanya.
Concerning that letter, I haven't received it yet.

The object of an active verb cannot precede the verb (see 3.48). However, in object topic-comment clauses, what was object in the basic clause, **surat itu** in the above example, is no longer object but topic. The object is **-nya**, which remains after the verb, allowing the verb to be active. As the above example shows, the word order in the comment undergoes no change. For comparison, the passive transformation of the above basic clause is:

Surat itu belum saya terima.
I haven't received that letter yet.

As with possessor topic-comment clauses, a comma optionally occurs after the topic in writing. Other examples:

Apa yang terjadi kemudian, anda sendiri mungkin pernah mengalaminya.
What happened next you yourself have possibly experienced.
Kebiasaan yang buruk itu susah merubahnya.
That bad habit is hard to change.

Object topic-comment clauses frequently occur as relative clauses, as discussed in section 3.105.

Identifying clauses

3.92 An identifying construction is another method of focusing attention on a particular element of a clause. Identifying clauses correspond to what are called cleft sentences in English, although their structure is quite different. The following clause is a neutral statement:

Orang itu mencuri dompet saya.
That person stole my wallet.

If we want to call attention to **orang itu** 'that person', to make it clear that it was he and not someone else who was involved, we can make it the predicate. The rest of the clause, beginning with **yang**, becomes a nominalised relative clause (see 3.131) and acts as subject. Because the predicate occurs before the subject it is foregrounded or highlighted (see 3.42–4) and can be marked by foregrounding particle **-lah** (see 3.51).

Orang itulah yang mencuri dompet saya.
It was that person who stole my wallet.

Such clauses can be translated by cleft sentences, as in the above example, or by constructions like 'That person is the one who stole my wallet'. Identifying clauses are far more frequent in Indonesian than cleft sentences in English where, at least in speech, it is more common simply to stress the first word of the phrase: '*That* person stole my wallet'. The identifying clause in Indonesian is also accompanied by extra stress on the first phrase. In addition, a rising intonation identifies the first phrase as the predicate. While foregrounding particle **-lah** is common in identifying clauses it is not obligatory:

Wayang kulitlah yang paling kami gemari.
It is the *wayang kulit* that we most admire.

Faktor politiklah yang terutama mempengaruhi hukum.
It is political factors which most influence the law.

Hadi yang berangkat tadi.
It was Hadi who left just now.

The predicate can be a personal pronoun or, as occurs commonly, a demonstrative pronoun:

Inilah yang paling lezat, sehat dan segar.
It is this which is most delicious, healthy and fresh.

As the predicate is a noun phrase it is negated by **bukan**:

Bukan saya yang selalu terlambat.
It isn't me who's always late.

3.93 Many Indonesians do not allow question words **siapa** 'who' and **apa** 'what' to be the subject of a basic passive clause. Instead they must occur in identifying constructions. This is discussed in section 4.16.

3.94 The order of subject and predicate cannot be reversed in an identifying clause; reversal of order produces a basic clause in which the subject is a nominalised relative clause (see 3.131–2). In each of the pairs of constructions below the first is an identifying clause, which has rising intonation on the predicate, while the second is a basic clause, with normal intonation pattern:

Pakaian yang saya beli.
It was clothes that I bought.
Yang saya beli pakaian.
What I bought was clothes.

Pak Hasjim(lah) yang mendirikan sekolah itu.
It was Mr Hasjim who founded that school.
Yang mendirikan sekolah itu (adalah) Pak Hasjim.
The one who founded that school was Mr Hasjim.

Direct quote clauses

3.95 Some verbs report what someone said. The object of such verbs, or the complement if they are intransitive (see 3.61), is a direct quote, sometimes called direct speech. In writing this is placed within quotation marks and is usually preceded by a comma:

Dia berkata, "Terima kasih".
He said, "Thank you".
Dewi menjawab, "Betul".
Dewi replied, "That is correct".

These clauses are here called direct quote clauses. A person's words can also be indirectly quoted, as discussed in section 3.111.

3.96 As well as basic direct quote clauses there are derived direct quote clauses. In these the direct speech is placed first in the clause for emphasis. The subject and verb of the basic clause are replaced by a quote noun phrase, which consists of

a quote noun and a possessor. The quote noun consists of the base of the verb in the corresponding basic clause and the possessor corresponds to the subject of the basic clause. The quote noun phrase corresponds to a subject and verb in English. The constructions derived from the basic quote clauses in section 3.95 are:

"Terima kasih", katanya.
"Thank you", he said.
"Betul", jawab Dewi.
"That is correct", replied Dewi.

The direct speech can be anything from a single word to a long construction. It can be a question, command, or exclamation, as well as a statement. For each of the following examples the subject and verb of the corresponding basic clause are also given:

"Saya diperlakukan tak adil", teriak terhukum.
[Terhukum berteriak, "...]
"I've been treated unjustly", shouted the sentenced man.
"Siapa itu?" tanyaku. [Aku bertanya, "...]
"Who is that?" I asked.
"Saya sudah mengundang dia", tambahnya.
[Dia menambahkan, "...]
I've already invited him", he added.
"Diusulkan agar saya belajar di Belanda", lanjut Kristiyanto.
[Kristiyanto melanjutkan, "...]
"It was suggested that I study in Holland", continued Kristiyanto.

The direct speech can be broken up, with the quote noun phrase being inserted within the two parts of the quote:

"Kalau gajinya tidak cukup", ujarnya, "jangan bekerja di sana".
"If the salary isn't enough", he said, "don't work there".

Some other quote nouns are the following, with **-nya** 'he' given as possessor:

gerutunya he grumbled	**tegasnya** he asserted
jelasnya he explained	**pikirnya** he thought
ceritanya he related	**ucapnya** he pronounced

sahutnya he responded	**bentaknya** he snapped
tulisnya he wrote	**guraunya** he joked

The quote noun phrase may be followed by a number of other clause components, such as prepositional phrases indicating who was spoken to, the manner in which it was said, and so on:

"Ke sini!", bisiknya kepadaku.
"Here!" he whispered to me.
"Kami masih berteman", ujarnya dengan lemah-lembut.
"We're still friends", she said softly.
"Itu bukan maksudku", katanya sambil tersenyum.
"That's not what I meant", she said while smiling.

Relative clauses

3.97 One way of adding information about a noun is by incorporating a clause within the noun phrase. This clause is preceded by **yang** and is called a relative clause. The head of the noun phrase corresponds to some component within the relative clause. The noun phrase within which the relative clause occurs, or is embedded, is called the embedding phrase.

There are a number of different types of relative clause. The most common of these is the defining relative clause, described in sections 3.98–102 and usually referred to simply as a relative clause. Other relative clauses are topic-comment relative clauses, described in sections 3.103–5, and prepositional relative clauses, described in section 3.106. A fourth type of relative clause is not preceded by **yang**. This is the locative relative clause, discussed in section 3.107.

Defining relative clauses

3.98 A defining relative clause is one whose subject corresponds to the head noun of the embedding phrase. In the following sections a defining relative clause is referred to just as a relative clause, being by far the most common type of relative clause. The clause is incorporated, or embedded, within the noun phrase by: (i) deleting its subject, which is identical to the head noun of the embedding phrase, and (ii)

placing **yang** before it. Thus, the following independent clause: (a) **Orang itu duduk dekat jendela** 'That person is sitting near the window', can be embedded within the subject noun phrase of the following clause: (b) **Orang itu bekerja dengan saya** 'That person works with me', by the two steps above, giving: (c) **Orang *yang duduk dekat jendela* itu bekerja dengan saya** 'The person *who is sitting near the window* works with me'.

The italicised part in (c) is the relative clause; it derives from (a) by the steps (i) and (ii) above and occurs within the subject of (c). The subject of (c) ends with optional **itu**. Although **itu** identifies the subject of (b), this is also achieved by the relative clause; in this case **itu** is more likely to be omitted from the embedding phrase. In journalistic style a long relative clause is sometimes placed after a demonstrative. This is discussed in section 2.60.

In Indonesian **yang** must occur before a relative clause, although in English corresponding 'who' or 'which' can sometimes be omitted:

Mobil yang ditubruk truk itu rusak sama sekali.
The car (which was) hit by the truck is a complete wreck.
Orang yang berkumpul di depan pintu harus pindah.
The people (who are) gathering in front of the door will have to move.
Celana yang dibelinya kemarin terlalu kecil.
The trousers (which) he bought yesterday are too small.

3.99 A relative clause can contain any constituent occurring in an independent clause except the subject, which is identical to the head of the embedding noun phrase. Since the head noun stands in the same relationship to the verb as the subject of the clause that relationship must be shown by the verb. If the relationship is that of actor the verb must be active:

orang yang membangun rumah saya
the person who built my house

If the noun stands as object the verb must be passive:

tanah yang sudah digarap

land which has been worked

The rule that the verb must be passive following a noun which stands as object to it can cause difficulty for English speakers as in English the verb can be, and usually is, active in this context:

Rumah yang dibangun Pak Dani tidak begitu besar.
The house Mr Dani built isn't very big.
Bis yang saya naiki tidak berhenti di Jalan Pramuka.
The bus I got didn't stop at Pramuka Road.
Dokter yang kami telpon segera datang.
The doctor who we called quickly came.

3.100 Verbal suffixes remain unchanged in relative clauses. Thus the head noun can have any participant role that the subject of an independent passive clause has. In the first example below the head noun stands as recipient and in the second it stands as beneficiary:

Beberapa orang yang dikirimi surat belum menjawab.
Several of the people who were sent letters have not yet replied.
Pemuda yang dicarikan pekerjaan sangat berterima kasih.
The youth for whom work was sought was very thankful.

3.101 Sections 3.98–100 refer only to verbal relative clauses. Relative clauses can also derive from other basic clause types. The following are some examples of noun phrases containing non-verbal relative clauses. The first is an adjective relative clause (further discussed in 2.45), followed by prepositional relative clauses:

mobil yang biru
the blue car
orang yang di sini tadi
the person who was here a while ago
anak yang seperti Tini
children who are like Tini

Noun relative clauses rarely occur. Normally **yang** cannot precede a noun. However, a noun relative clause can be used

when the speaker wishes to distinguish a person from other people with similar characteristics, especially the same name:

Soeharto yang presiden
Soeharto who is president (not some other Soeharto)

Moreover, there is a growing tendency, especially in journalistic style, to allow noun relative clauses to add information about the head noun, rather than to identify, although this is not acceptable to all speakers:

Pemerintah mengizinkan Zardari, yang juga anggota parlemen, untuk menghadiri sidang.
The government allowed Zadari, who is also a member of parliament, to attend the session.
Ibu Alieva, yang seorang ibu, akan kami jemput.
Mrs Alieva, who is a woman, will be met by us.

3.102 A number of relative clauses can occur within the one noun phrase. The following example contains adjective and verbal relative clauses:

pertambangan-pertambangan yang penting yang menghasilkan bahan tambang strategis
important mines which produce strategic minerals

Topic-comment relative clauses

3.103 Both possessor topic-comment clauses (see 3.88) and object topic-comment clauses (see 3.91) can be embedded in noun phrases. The topic of the topic-comment clause is deleted; the noun of the embedding phrase then stands as topic (not subject) to the relative clause. The **-nya** in the relative clause identifies the head of the noun phrase.

Possessor topic-comment relative clauses meaning 'whose'

3.104 In possessor topic-comment relative clauses, which translate constructions with 'whose' in English, the subject of the relative clause is the thing possessed by the head noun. The first example below derives from the independent clause **Sopir itu namanya Ali** 'That driver's name is Ali':

sopir yang namanya Ali
the driver whose name is Ali
orang yang mobilnya dicuri

the person whose car was stolen
jalan yang panjangnya sekitar 18 kilometer
a road whose length is about 18 kilometers

If the subject of a topic-comment clause is something inalienably possessed by the topic it can occur after the predicate, as discussed in section 3.89. This rule also applies in relative topic-comment clauses:

lima puluh empat negara Afrika yang diakui kedaulatannya
fifty four African nations whose sovereignty is recognised
kawasan yang dipuji kebersihannya ini
this region whose cleanliness has been praised
seorang pejabat yang tidak akan disebutkan namanya
an official whose name will not be mentioned
gadis yang kami kagumi kecantikan dan kelembutannya itu
the girl whose beauty and gentleness we admired

Object topic-comment relative clauses

3.105 The head of the embedding phrase is identical to the object of the relative clause and is marked by **-nya** occurring in object position within the clause. In the first example below the head of the embedding phrase **harapan** 'hope' is also object of the verb **menyelesaikan** 'fulfil':

Saya banyak menciptakan harapan bagi rakyat yang saya sendiri tidak mampu menyelesaikannya.
I created many hopes for the people which I myself was not able to fulfil.
senjata yang tidak setiap musuh bisa menghadapinya
weapons which not every enemy can face
sebuah lagu yang barangkali saudara akan menyukainya
a song which perhaps you will like

Prepositional relative clauses

3.106 In these constructions the head of the embedding phrase is not identical to the subject (or topic) of the relative clause. Instead it is identical to the noun in a prepositional phrase (see 2.118), usually one indicating location. The noun following the preposition is deleted and replaced by **-nya**.

The following basic clause contains a prepositional phrase as an adjunct of location (see 2.208):

Di belakang rumah itu ada pohon mangga.
Behind that house there is a mango tree.

This can be embedded in a noun phrase whose head is **rumah** 'house'. **Rumah itu** is deleted from the prepositional phrase and its place taken by **-nya**:

rumah yang di belakangnya ada pohon mangga
the house behind which there is a mango tree

The preposition may be followed by a longer noun phrase; the whole of this is deleted from the relative clause as it also occurs in the embedding phrase. The locative adjunct in the following construction contains the phrase **sebuah grup vokal** 'a vocal group':

Rima juga ikut di dalam sebuah grup vokal.
Rima also participates in a vocal group.

The whole phrase is deleted from the relative clause and replaced by **-nya**:

sebuah grup vokal yang di dalamnya Rima juga ikut
a vocal group in which Rima also participates

In such constructions the preposition occurs at the beginning of the relative clause, immediately after **yang**. The preposition involved is usually a locative preposition, as in the examples above and the first example below. In the other examples below it is the recipient preposition **kepada** 'to' and the benefactive preposition **untuk** 'for':

meja yang di atasnya tersedia makanan
the table on which food is set
orang yang kepadanya saya mengirimkan surat
the person I sent a letter to
anak yang untuknya saya membeli kado
the child I bought the present for

Prepositional relative clauses occur infrequently and are likely to be replaced by defining relative clauses where these can occur. Thus the last two examples above could alternatively be expressed:

orang yang saya kirimi surat
the person I sent a letter to
anak yang saya belikan kado
the child I bought the present for

Locative relative clauses

3.107 These differ from other relative clauses in that they are not preceded by **yang**. The more traditional construction begins with **tempat**, translated 'where':

Pabrik tempat mereka bekerja tidak jauh dari sini.
The factory where they work is not far from here.

Although some people still regard this as the only acceptable form it is more commonly replaced by **di mana** in the present-day language:

pabrik di mana mereka bekerja
the factory where they work

On analogy with this form constructions with **dari mana** 'from where, from which' and **dalam mana** 'in which' are becoming more common in journalistic style, although unacceptable to many people:

pangkalan dari mana roket itu dilepaskan
the base from which the rocket was launched
surat-surat cinta dalam mana dia berjanji akan mengawini gadis-gadis itu
love letters in which he promised to marry those girls

Bahwa clauses

3.108 Any statement can follow **bahwa** 'that'; these correspond to 'that' clauses in English. A **bahwa** clause behaves like a noun phrase and can occur in a number of positions where nouns usually occur.

3.109 A **bahwa** clause can occur within a noun phrase, modifying the head noun (see also 2.54):

Kabar bahwa gaji pegawai akan naik menggembirakan kami.
The news that employee's wages would rise delighted us.
Tudingan bahwa Bung Karno terlibat makin santer.

Accusations that Bung Karno was involved became more and more frequent.

3.110 It can also occur as the predicate of a noun clause. A copula usually precedes **bahwa** (an example is given in 3.6).

3.111 The most frequent occurrence of a **bahwa** clause is as object of a transitive verb or as complement of an intransitive verb (see 3.66). As such it introduces indirect speech, also called an indirect quote, which can be used instead of direct speech (see 3.95):

Dia menjawab, "Saya tidak percaya".
He replied, "I don't believe it".
Dia menjawab bahwa dia tidak percaya.
He replied that he didn't believe it.

Bahwa clauses most frequently occur as objects or complements of verbs which report something that happened or report what someone said; only the latter group can replace the **bahwa** clause by a direct quote. These are usually called reporting verbs in grammars of English and many of them rarely, if ever, have a noun as an object:

Dia sadar bahwa dia telah ditipu.
He was aware that he had been tricked.
Kami percaya bahwa kami dapat mengatasi kesukaran ini.
We believe that we can overcome this difficulty.
Kami mengakui bahwa kami perlu bantuan dari luar negeri.
We acknowledge that we need help from overseas.

A list of intransitive verbs which can have a **bahwa** clause as complement is given in section 3.66.

When a **bahwa** clause is object or complement **bahwa** can be omitted:

Saya tahu (bahwa) dia pencuri.
I know (that) he is a thief.
Dia memperkirakan (bahwa) Indonesia membutuhkan tiga ribu pilot baru.

He estimates (that) Indonesia needs three thousand new pilots.

If the subject of the **bahwa** clause is the same as the subject of the main clause then it can be omitted along with **bahwa**:

Mereka berjanji bahwa mereka tidak akan merongrong pemerintah.
They promised that they would not undermine the government.
Mereka berjanji tidak akan merongrong pemerintah.
They promised not to undermine the government.

Dia mengancam bahwa dia akan membunuh saya.
He threatened that he would kill me.
Dia mengancam akan membunuh saya.
He threatened to kill me.

3.112 A **bahwa** clause can occur in subject position. As subject it usually follows the predicate. Corresponding to such clauses in English are constructions whose subject is impersonal 'it', with the 'that' clause following the predicate. In some grammars of English such structures are treated as having two subjects; 'it' is called the 'anticipatory subject' and the 'that' clause is called the 'postponed subject'. In formal English the 'that' clause may precede the verb as the sole subject, as given as an alternative translation to the first example below. The **bahwa** clause may also precede the predicate, although this is not common:

Bukanlah rahasia lagi bahwa dia suka pada Irma.
It is no longer a secret that he likes Irma. (That he likes Irma is no longer a secret.)
Jelas bahwa dia ingin menipu kita.
It is clear that he wants to cheat us.
Belum disadari bahwa helm dapat mencegah luka berat.
It isn't yet realised that a helmet can prevent serious injury.
Bahwa kabar itu tidak benar diumumkan oleh yang berwajib.
That the news was not true was announced by the authorities.

If the **bahwa** clause is in subject position and follows the predicate **bahwa** can be deleted; if it precedes the predicate **bahwa** cannot be deleted:

Tidak dapat disangkal (bahwa) film mempunyai pengaruh besar.
It cannot be denied that movies have a big influence.
Bahwa film mempunyai pengaruh besar tidak dapat disangkal.
That movies have a big influence cannot be denied.

Untuk clauses

3.113 A basic clause obligatorily loses its subject when it becomes an **untuk** clause, as the subject is always identical with some component of the main clause within which the **untuk** clause occurs. **Untuk** clauses can occur as subject, predicate and complement.

As well as not having a subject, an **untuk** clause allows very few predicate components; in addition to the verb only **tidak** is at all frequent:

Dia memutuskan untuk tidak menolong mereka.
He decided not to help them.

3.114 Occurring as predicate an **untuk** clause is frequently preceded by a copula. This is further discussed, with an example, in section 3.6.

3.115 Occurring as subject an **untuk** clause usually follows the predicate (see 3.45). The English translation frequently has an 'anticipatory 'it' subject', as discussed in section 3.112:

Penting sekali bagi negara-negara Arab untuk memelihara hubungan dengan Iran.
It is very important for the Arab countries to maintain relations with Iran.
Tidak semudah itu untuk mengubah sikap penduduk.
It isn't as easy as that to change the attitude of the people.

Untuk can be omitted when the **untuk** clause occurs as subject, in which case the clause becomes a simple nominal clause (see 3.143):

Untuk mencari pekerjaan di kota tidak begitu mudah.
To find work in the city isn't very easy.
Mencari pekerjaan di kota tidak begitu mudah.
Finding work in the city isn't very easy.

3.116 An **untuk** clause can occur as complement of transitive and intransitive verbs to indicate an action which occurs after the action of the main verb:

Mereka bersedia untuk menurunkan harga.
They are prepared to lower prices.
Pemberontak berencana untuk melancarkan operasi baru.
The rebels plan to launch a new operation
Mereka dipanggil untuk mengambil bagian.
They were called to take part.
Pemerintah mengizinkan dia untuk menghadiri sidang.
The government permitted him to attend the session.

Untuk can always be omitted, in which case the complement functions like the verbal complements discussed in sections 3.73 and 3.76. The last example above can also be:

Pemerintah mengizinkan dia menghadiri sidang.
The government permitted him to attend the session.

The likelihood of **untuk** occurring depends on a number of factors. When the clause is a complement **untuk** rarely occurs following some main verbs, such as **mencoba** 'try', while it is rarely absent after some other verbs, such as **memutuskan** 'decide':

Saya mencoba (untuk) merokok Dji Sam Soe.
I tried to smoke Dji Sam Soe cigarettes.
Saya memutuskan untuk pergi.
I decided to go.

3.117 Some transitive verbs have no object but are directly followed by an **untuk** complement. This occurs when the subject of the complement verb is identical with the subject of the main verb:

Dia mengelak untuk menjawab langsung.
He avoided answering directly.

Menteri memutuskan untuk memberitahu para wartawan.
The minister decided to tell the journalists.
Dia menolak untuk menyebutkan jumlah pesawat yang diperlukan.
He refused to state the number of planes which were required.

Untuk is also optional in this situation:
Dia mengelak menjawab langsung.
He avoided answering directly.

In such constructions the **untuk** clause must be regarded as a complement and not an object because the main verb cannot be transformed to a passive. However, the complement verb can be passive; the two verbs still have the same subject:
Dia menolak untuk diperiksa oleh mereka.
He refused to be investigated by them.

3.118 **Untuk** also occurs as a conjunction before a subordinate clause of purpose (see 4.74). In this function it cannot be omitted.

Supaya/agar clauses

3.119 Unlike an **untuk** clause (see 3.113ff), a clause introduced by **supaya** or **agar** has a subject. A **supaya/agar** clause can occur as subject, object or complement of a clause. Subordinate clauses introduced by these conjunctions are discussed in section 4.74.

3.120 Transitive and intransitive verbs of intent can take a complement introduced by **supaya** or **agar**. These verbs are listed in section 3.80.

3.121 Occurring as a complement with intransitive verbs of intent a **supaya/agar** clause contains a subject, which is always different from the subject of the main clause:
Dia ingin supaya kami menolong dia.
He wants us to help him.
Bung Karno berpesan agar Dewi menasihati Martono.

Bung Karno gave instructions that Dewi advise Martono.
Dia bercita-cita agar anaknya dilamar oleh orang kaya saja.
He desires that his daughter be proposed to by no one but a rich man.

3.122 Transitive verbs of intent indicate that the subject intends that the object perform some other action, which is expressed by the complement clause. Because the subject of the **supaya/agar** clause is identical with the object of the main clause it is almost always ellipted:

Kepala kantor memerintahkan Soeparno agar mencari berkas itu.
The office head ordered Soeparno to find the file.
Secara terbuka Muso mengajak Indonesia supaya bergandengan tangan dengan Moskow.
Muso openly urged Indonesia to go hand-in-hand with Moscow.
Para pendeta Katolik menyerukan jemaatnya agar mengirim surat protes.
The Catholic priests called on their congregations to send letters of protest.

The object of the main clause and the subject of the complement can both be expressed, although this is uncommon:

Saya menyuruhmu supaya kamu membaca buku itu.
I order you to read that book.[7]

As the main verb is transitive it can be made passive. Its object becomes the subject in the normal way (see 3.26). However, the complement remains after the main verb. In such constructions the subject is patient of the main verb and actor of the complement verb:

Saya disuruh oleh polisi supaya pergi.
I was ordered by the police to go.
Perdana Menteri didesak oleh rakyat agar mengambil langkah tegas.

7 This example is from Lapoliwa (1990: 202).

The Prime Minister was urged by the people to take firm steps.

What is expressed as object of the main clause can alternatively be expressed as subject of the complement clause; in this case the **supaya/agar** clause becomes object of the main clause, as discussed in section 3.125.

3.123 **Supaya/agar** can be omitted, although with many intransitive verbs the construction is awkward without it. When the conjunction is omitted a transitive verb is followed by an object and object complement, as discussed in section 3.76:

Suwono menyuruh anaknya (supaya) pergi ke sekolah.
Suwono ordered his children to go to school.

3.124 A **Supaya/agar** clause can be the object of a transitive verb under two conditions: when the original object is ellipted (see 3.125), or when it is reinterpreted as a recipient phrase (see 3.126).

3.125 When occurring as complement of a transitive verb the subject of the **supaya/agar** clause is usually ellipted, as discussed in section 3.122. Alternatively, the object of the main clause can be ellipted, in which case the subject of the **supaya/agar** clause is retained. The main verb is then immediately followed by the **supaya/agar** clause:

Dia menginstruksikan agar sopir membawa tamunya ke hotel.
He instructed the driver to take his guests to the hotel.
Rukman mengingatkan agar anak buahnya tidak menembak.
Rukman warned his men not to shoot.
Leo menyerukan agar rakyat punya keberanian mengadu.
Leo appealed for the people to have the courage to complain.

In constructions such as those above the **supaya/agar** clause is the object of the main verb. It can thus become subject of a passive construction, as illustrated in section 3.127.

3.126 The original object of the main clause can be reinterpreted as a recipient, introduced by **kepada** 'to'. In this case the **supaya/agar** clause is no longer a complement but is reinterpreted as object. It always follows the recipient phrase and its subject is ellipted, being the same as the recipient. In the first example below **-nya** is shown both as object and as recipient:

Dokter menganjurkannya supaya berobat di Australia.
Dokter menganjurkan kepadanya supaya berobat di Australia.
The doctor urged him to get medical treatment in Australia.
Mereka menghimbau kepada Presiden Soeharto agar mencabut keputusan Menteri Penerangan.
They appealed to President Soeharto to revoke the decision of the Minister of Information.

3.127 As subject a **supaya/agar** clause invariable occurs in a passive clause. It almost always follows other nuclear components of the clause:

Diserukan agar dilancarkan aksi-aksi protes internasional di semua pusat operasi perusahaan itu.
It was urged that international protest actions be launched in all centres of operation of the company.
Disarankannya agar mereka dikawinkan.
She advised that they be married.

3.128 If the verb of the **supaya/agar** clause is negated either **jangan** or **tidak** can occur. Although use of **tidak** is historically the newer form it is preferred by many people:

Saya minta supaya saudara tidak/jangan pergi.
I request that you don't go/I ask you not to go.

3.129 When the subject of a **supaya/agar** clause is ellipted, as discussed in 3.122, the clause has no subject and hence **supaya/agar** can be replaced by **untuk** (see 3.113):

Saya dapat mengusulkan kepada pimpinan untuk/supaya menerima saudara.
I can suggest to the leaders to accept you.
Hasan Basrie mendesak pemerintah untuk memperkuat sensor terhadap film kekerasan.

Hasan Basrie urged the government to toughen censorship against violent movies.

If a subject occurs **supaya** cannot be replaced by **untuk**:

Saya dapat mengusulkan kepada pimpinan supaya mereka menerima saudara.

I can suggest to the leaders that they accept you.

Nominalised clauses

3.130 The word 'nominalised' means 'turned/made into a noun'. Nominalisation can apply not only to clauses but to various words, including adjectives (see 2.35). Relative clauses (see 3.97) can be nominalised by deletion of the head of the noun phrase, as discussed in 3.131. A clauses can also be nominalised by use of **-nya** on the predicate; this is called predicate nominalisation, and is discussed in section 3.136. Some clauses can be nominalised by occurring in certain positions within another clause; these are simple nominal clauses, discussed in section 3.143. Indirect questions are also nominalised constructions; these are discussed in section 4.27.

Nominalised relative clauses

3.131 Relative clauses occur within noun phrases and are preceded by **yang** (see 3.97).

Nominalisation occurs when the head noun is ellipted (see 4.111), usually because it is clear from context, leaving **yang** at the beginning of the noun phrase. The **yang** phrase then functions like a noun. In corresponding constructions in English the noun is frequently replace by 'one'. The noun **mobil** 'car' in the first clause below is omitted in the second clause because it is clear from the context what sort of thing is being spoken about:

Mobil yang dibeli Ali berwarna biru. Yang dibeli Hasan berwarna merah.

The car which Ali bought is blue. The one Hasan bought is red.

3.132 Any defining relative clause (see 3.98) can be nominalised by deletion of the head noun. The following

examples illustrate a number of different types of nominalised relative clauses:

Yang biru milik saya.
The blue one is mine.
Yang sudah dipakai tidak bisa dikembalikan.
The used ones can't be returned.
Kepada yang lapar diberikan makanan.
To the hungry will be given food.
yang itu
that one
yang mengajukan permohonan ini
the one who presented this request
yang kedua
the second one
yang lain
the other; others

3.133 Possessor topic-comment relative clauses (see 3.104) and prepositional relative clauses (see 3.106) can also be nominalised:

Yang mobilnya dicuri langsung memberitahu polisi.
The one whose car was stolen told the police straightaway.
Yang di depannya tumbuh pohon mangga rumah Hendrik.
the one in front of which grows a mango tree is Hendrik's house.

Object topic-comment clauses (see 3.105) are unlikely to be nominalised because of their complex structure.

3.134 A nominalised relative clause can occur in any of the positions in which the embedding phrase can occur, including subject, predicate and object, as in the following examples:

Yang itu teman saya.
That one is my friend.
Mobil saya yang biru.
My car is the blue one.
Andi memilih yang besar.
Andi chose the big one.

Since the nominalised clause is a noun it is negated by **bukan** if it appears in the predicate:

Mobil saya bukan yang biru.
My car isn't the blue one.

However, the predicate within the nominalised clause can also be negated and if this is a verb it is negated by **tidak** in the usual way:

Mobil saya yang tidak biru.
My car is the one which isn't blue.

3.135 It is stated in section 3.99 that the verb in a relative clause must be passive if the head noun stands as object to it. This rule holds in a nominalised relative clause, even though the head noun is deleted:

Yang dibangun Pak Dani tidak begitu besar.
The one Mr Dani built isn't very big.

Predicate nominalisation

3.136 A predicate which contains a verb or an adjective can be nominalised by the suffixation of **-nya**. The subject of the clause becomes a possessor in the nominalised construction.

The process is illustrated with the following clause:

Beberapa jalan ditutup.
Several roads were closed.

(i) The verb is placed before the subject and **-nya** is attached to it; the subject now acts as possessor to the nominalised verb:

ditutupnya beberapa jalan
the closure of several roads

(ii) The whole construction is now a noun phrase, which can occur in a larger construction, italicised in the following example:

Lalu lintas menjadi macet karena *ditutupnya beberapa jalan.*
Traffic became jammed because of *the closure of several roads.*

A second illustrative example is the following:

Yang amat menyolok adalah hadirnya anak-anak kecil di setiap tempat yang kita lalui.
What was very conspicuous was the presence of small children in every place we passed through.

The nominalised clause in the above is **hadirnya anak-anak kecil** 'the presence of small children', which derives from the clause **Anak-anak kecil hadir** 'Small children are present'.

The nominalised predicate can be an adjective, as in the first two examples below, an intransitive verb, as in the third to fifth examples, or a transitive verb. If transitive it must be passive, as in the last two examples below. The basic clause from which the nominalised clause derives is placed in parentheses after each example below:

Hal ini disebabkan karena miskinnya orang tua. [Orang tua miskin.]
This is caused by the poverty of parents.
Mereka harus menghadapi ganasnya laut selama berminggu-minggu. [Laut ganas.]
They had to face the fury of the sea for weeks.
Mereka prihatin atas terjadinya kerusuhan di kampus. [Kerusuhan terjadi di kampus.]
They are concerned about the occurrence of riots on the campus.
Runtuhnya komunisme Soviet merugikan ekonomi Kuba. [Komunisme Soviet runtuh.]
The collapse of Soviet communism damaged the Cuban economy.
Sungguh luar biasa meningkatnya jumlah anak-anak di negeri kita ini. [Jumlah anak-anak di negeri kita ini meningkat.]
The increase in the number of children in this land of ours is truly extraordinary.
Polisi telah menahan dua orang pria sehubungan dengan terbunuhnya seorang anggota parlemen. [Seorang anggota parlemen terbunuh.]
Police have detained two males in connection with the killing of a member of parliament.

Para demonstran menuntut dibebaskannya semua buruh yang ditahan. [Semua buruh yang ditahan dibebaskan.]
The demonstrators demanded the freeing of all the detained workers.

3.137 In the examples in 3.136 the nominalised predicate is a single word. However, the predicate can contain any of the constituents discussed in sections 2.133–53:

Ini menunjukkan tidak adanya efisiensi kerja.
This indicates lack (non-existence) of work efficiency.
Sebuah suara yang menggeletar mengumumkan akan datangnya seorang jenderal yang kelak menguasai dunia.
A shimmering voice announced the future coming of a general who would rule the world.
Mereka tidak sadar tentang bakal adanya pemilihan umum.
They aren't aware of the forthcoming general elections.

If the nominalised predicate is adjectival it can include modifying adverbs occurring within the adjective phrase (see 2.100):

Ini menunjukkan makin baiknya hubungan bilateral.
This indicates the increasing improvement in bilateral relations.

3.138 Nominalised adjectives and verbs can often be replaced by nouns with affixation **ke-...-an** (see 1.72) or **peN-...-an** (see 1.87). The following are drawn from examples in section 3.136 with corresponding nouns in parentheses:

miskinnya (kemiskinan) orang tua
the poverty of the parents
hadirnya (kehadiran) anak-anak kecil
the presence of small children
meningkatnya (peningkatan) jumlah anak-anak
the increase in the number of children
terbunuhnya (pembunuhan) seorang anggota parlemen
the killing of a member of parliament

Where there are both intransitive and transitive verbs with the same base, a corresponding **peN-...-an** noun does not

distinguish between them (see 1.89); however, the nominalised predicate does: **mendaratnya/pendaratan pasukan itu** 'the landing of those troops' (from: **Pasukan itu mendarat** 'Those troops landed') and **didaratkannya/ pendaratan pasukan itu** 'the landing of those troops' (from: **Pasukan itu didaratkan** 'Those troops were landed').

Not all nominalised verbs and adjectives can be replaced by **ke-...-an** or **peN-...-an** nouns. In particular, if the nominalisation involves other predicate components, such as **tidak adanya** 'non-existence' and **akan datangnya** 'future coming', as in examples in section 3.137, this is not possible. Also, a few nominalised forms have different meanings from affixed forms with the same base. Thus **banyaknya orang** 'the large number of people' and **kebanyakan orang** 'the majority of people'.

3.139 A nominalised predicate can consist of two words in contrast. The pair can be two adjectives, such as **besar-kecilnya** 'size, dimensions', two intransitive verbs, such as **timbul-tenggelamnya** 'rise and fall', or an adjective or intransitive verb and **tidak**, such as **ada-tidaknya** 'existence or not':

Besar-kecilnya rumah itu tidak diberitahukan.
The size (largeness or smallness) of the house was not reported.
Timbul-tenggelamnya suata negara tidak bergantung pada cara pemerintahannya.
The rise and fall of a nation does not depend on its type of government.
Pembebasan suatu negara tergantung pada ada-tidaknya kegiatan politik.
The liberation of a country depends on the existence or otherwise of political activity.

Such constructions do not derive directly from independent clauses. However, many of them can be related to constructions in which predicates are coordinated by **atau** (see 4.64), which is sometimes retained in the nominalised form. The nominalised structure in the following example derives from a clause with coordinated predicates, **Usaha ini**

berhasil atau tidak berhasil 'This endeavour succeeds or does not succeed':

Berhasil-tidaknya/berhasil atau tidaknya usaha ini tergantung pada kita.
The success or failure of this endeavour depends on us.

3.140 Nominalisation of adjectives referring to measure is a particular type of predicate nominalisation. Adjectives of measure are nominalised as explained in section 3.136. Thus from **Orang itu tinggi** 'That person is tall', is derived **tingginya orang itu** 'the height of that person'. Such constructions frequently occur as subjects of quantity clauses (see 3.8):

Tingginya orang itu seratus tujuh puluh sentimeter.
That person's height is one hundred and seventy centimetres.

Nominalised adjectives of measure only take **-nya** obligatorily if there is no other possessor expressed. In the presence of a first or second person possessor **-nya** cannot occur:

Beratnya sepuluh kilo.
Its weight is ten kilos.
Berat(nya) koper ini sepuluh kilo.
The weight of this suitcase is ten kilos.
Berat saya delapan puluh kilo.
My weight is eighty kilos.

3.141 Nominalised measure adjective constructions frequently become topic-comment clauses (see 3.88):

Roket itu panjangnya 7,9 meter dan beratnya 2.180 kg.
The length of the rocket is 7.9 metres and its weight is 2,180 kg.

3.142 A nominalised adjective of measure cannot be used if the construction does not contain a possessor. Instead a **ke-...-an** noun (see 1.72) is used:

Roket itu mampu mencapai ketinggian 50 mil dan mencapai kecepatan 2.500 mil per jam.
The rocket can achieve a height of 50 miles and a speed of 2,500 miles per hour.

Ke-...-an nouns are sometimes used instead of nominalised measure adjectives even where there is a possessor (see also 3.138). The nouns **kedalaman** 'depth' and **kecepatan** 'speed' frequently occur in such contexts:

Kedalaman/dalamnya sungai ini tiga meter.
The depth of this river is three metres.
Kecepatan/cepatnya mobil itu seratus kilometer per jam.
The speed of the car was one hundred kilometres per hour.

However, the two forms sometimes differ. Thus **ketinggian** 'height' refers to how far above the ground something is: **ketinggian pesawat itu** 'the height of that plane (i.e. how high it is flying)', while **tingginya** 'height, tallness' refers to the measurement of something from its base to top.

Simple nominal clauses

3.143 Intransitive verbs and transitive active verbs can be used as nouns meaning 'the general activity denoted by the verb'. In grammars of English these are usually called gerunds, verbal nouns or nominal '-ing' clauses. They can occur as subject of a clause:

Berenang sangat baik untuk kesehatan.
Swimming is very good for the health.
Mengarang ialah seni.
Writing is an art.

While a verb is often nominalised alone, as in the above examples, other clause elements can occur with it. However, because the nominalised verb refers to activity in a general way it cannot have a subject. An object can occur, although this cannot be a definite noun:

Mencari pekerjaan di kota tidak begitu mudah.
Finding work in the city is not very easy.
Mengumpulkan perangko kesukaannya.
Collecting stamps is his hobby.
Membersihkan rumah tidak boleh dilalaikan.
Cleaning the house cannot be neglected.

Besides components of the original clause nothing can occur within the noun phrase with a nominal clause except the demonstrative **itu**, which occurs when all instances of the

action are referred to; it also has the effect of identifying the verb as nominal (see 2.7):

Lari itu sehat.
Running is healthy.

As mentioned in section 3.115, deletion of **untuk** results in a simple nominal clause, although not all simple nominal clauses can become **untuk** clauses.

3.144 In all the examples in section 3.143 simple nominal clauses occur in subject position. A simple nominal clause can also occur as predicate, in which case it is usually preceded by copula **adalah** or **ialah** (see also the first example in 3.6):

Tugas saya adalah menjual koran.
My task is selling newspapers.
Kesenangan kami ialah bermain sepak bola.
Our favourite pastime is playing soccer.

That the verb is here acting as a noun is shown by the fact that the predicate is equated with the subject and is negated by **bukan**. When the predicate is negated a copula rarely occurs:

Kegemaran saya bukan memelihara binatang.
My hobby is not looking after animals.

3.145 Secondary verbs of the type **jahit-menjahit** 'everything to do with sewing' are always nominalised; these are discussed in section 1.252.

4 SENTENCES

4.1 A sentence is a construction which is grammatically complete; it can stand alone as a complete utterance (although it may be closely linked to what has gone before). A sentence expresses a statement, question, command, or exclamation. In writing a sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark, or exclamation mark.

In this chapter the different types of sentence structure are described. In sections 4.2–62 are described the four moods: statements, questions, imperatives, exclamations.

Sentences are either simple or complex. A simple sentence consists of a single independent clause (clauses are described in Chapter Three). A complex sentence is one which consists of more than a single clause. Complex sentences are described in sections 4.63–110.

Ellipsis, or omission of clause components, is discussed in sections 4.111–8.

MOOD

4.2 Sentences can be classified according to the basic reason for their utterance. This is usually called mood or

mode. The four moods recognised here are statements, questions, imperatives, and exclamations.

Statements

4.3 Statements are used when we give information, express an opinion and so on. Statements are sometimes said to be in the declarative mood. Chapters One to Three deal almost exclusively with statements.

Questions

4.4 Questions are sometimes said to be in the interrogative mood. There are two types of question; yes-no questions, dealt with in sections 4.5–13, and specific questions, described in sections 4.14–22. In both types **-kah** can occur to mark the construction as a question. This is discussed in sections 4.23–6. Questions can be placed within statements. These are called indirect questions, discussed in sections 4.27–31.

Yes–No Questions

4.5 Questions which seek the answer 'yes' or 'no' are yes-no questions:

Kamu lapar? Are you hungry?
Tidak. No.

(The answer might not be a simple positive or negative; there are many other responses, such as **kadang-kadang** 'sometimes', **mungkin** 'possibly', and so on.)

Yes-no questions are spoken with interrogative intonation, marked by a rise in final pitch, and written with a final question mark. Frequently intonation (a question mark in writing) is the only difference between a statement, marked by a fall in final pitch, and a yes-no question:

Sri sudah pulang.
Sri has gone home.
Sri sudah pulang?
Has Sri gone home?

Dia guru.
He is a teacher.
Dia guru?
Is he a teacher?

4.6 A yes-no question does not usually have a different word order from the corresponding statement. However, if **boleh** occurs it usually precedes the subject:
Boleh saya masuk?
May I come in?

4.7 A yes-no question can be made overtly interrogative by placing **apa** or **apakah** before it. This is more common in writing and formal speech:
Apa ini hari Selasa?
Is this Tuesday?
Apakah dia guru?
Is she a teacher?

In this context **apa(kah)**, which is here called a question marker, has no lexical function but simply signals that what follows is a question. It must be distinguished from the question word **apa** 'what?' (see 4.15):
Apa dia sudah makan?
Has she eaten?
Dia sudah makan apa?
What has she eaten?

The first sentence above contains the question marker **apa**, which can be omitted:
Dia sudah makan?
Has she eaten?

In the second sentence **apa** 'what' is the object of the verb and cannot be omitted.

4.8 If question marker **apa** does not occur **-kah** can be attached to another word to signal that the construction is a question, that word usually being placed first in the clause:
Sudahkah dia makan? Has she eaten?

Use of **-kah** is discussed in section 4.23-6.

Bukan as sentence tag

4.9 **Bukan** can be attached to a statement to turn it into a question. **Bukan** then corresponds to a sentence tag with 'be', 'have' or 'do' in English. This is usually used either when the speaker, uncertain as to the truth of the statement, seeks confirmation or, when knowing the statement to be correct, seeks agreement from the addressee:

Saudara mahasiswa, bukan?
You are a student, aren't you?
Pesawat berangkat jam lima, bukan?
The plane leaves at five, doesn't it?
Dia sudah makan, bukan?
She has eaten, hasn't she?

As the above examples show, **bukan** is used in this way even if the construction would usually be negated with **tidak** or **belum**.

Bukan can occur as tag to a negative sentence:

Saudara tidak punya surat jalan, bukan?
You don't have a travel document, do you?

Bukan occurs first in the sentence if **-kah** is attached to it (see 4.25).

4.10 Informally **bukan** may be replaced by **kan**, but only when the speaker is seeking agreement from the addressee to a situation the speaker knows to be correct. **Kan** often comes before the predicate, rather than at the end of the sentence:

Gajinya lumayan, kan?
Gajinya kan lumayan?
The salary is pretty good, isn't it?

Ya as sentence tag

4.11 In informal speech **ya** can occur as a sentence tag. Like **bukan** it turns a statement into a question, which invites confirmation or agreement from the listener. This also allows the speaker to avoid the impression of making a firm assertion:

Dia cantik, ya?
She's pretty, isn't she?
Film itu bagus, ya?
That movie was great, eh?

Ya also occurs in imperatives (see 4.42).

Alternative possibility yes-no questions

4.12 The alternative possibility can be indicated by attaching **atau** plus a negative, meaning 'or not', to a yes-no question. The negative following **atau** is the same as would occur if the preceding part of the question were negated:

Apakah anda mau ikut, atau tidak?
Do you want to come, or not?
Ini jalan ke Rawamangun, atau bukan?
Is this the road to Rawamangun, or not?
Mereka sudah pulang, atau belum?
Have they gone home yet, or not?

Responses to yes-no questions

4.13 A yes-no question can be answered by a positive response, such as **ya** 'yes', **betul** 'correct'. This may be followed by a full sentence:

Q: **Siti cantik?**
Is Siti pretty?
A: **Ya, (dia cantik).**
Yes, (she is).

Frequently a positive response is with a word which occurred in the question. The most common of such words are **sudah**, **boleh**, **mau**:

Q: **Anda sudah makan?**
Have you eaten?
A: **Sudah.**
Yes (literally: Already).

Q: **Boleh saya masuk?**
May I come in?
A: **Boleh.**
Yes (literally: (You) may).

Responses are further discussed in section 4.118.

A negative response to a positive question is with the appropriate negative word:

Q: **Anda sudah makan?**
Have you eaten yet?
A: **Belum.**
Not yet.

If a yes-no question contains a negative it is agreed to by a positive response, such as **ya** 'yes', **betul** 'correct', where 'no' would occur in English. In a full response this is then followed by a sentence containing a negative:

Q: **Anda tidak minum kopi?**
You don't drink coffee?
A: **Ya, (saya tidak minum kopi).**
No, (I don't drink coffee).

Q: **Kamu belum mengisi formulir, bukan?**
You haven't filled in the form yet, have you?
A: **Ya, (saya belum mengisi formulir).**
No, (I haven't filled the form in yet).

Although a tag question is always formed with **bukan**, a negative response uses the appropriate negative word, **bukan** if the predicate is a noun, **belum** if the predicate contains **sudah**, and **tidak** elsewhere:

Q: **Anda lapar, bukan?**
You're hungry, aren't you?
A: **Tidak.**
No.

Specific Questions

4.14 These questions do not seek 'yes' or 'no' as an answer but require specific information. Specific questions contain a question word, or interrogative, corresponding to one of the 'wh-' words in English. These are:

apa what
siapa who
(di/ke/dari) mana where (at/to/from)
(yang) mana which
kapan, bila when
apabila, bila(mana) when

bagaimana how
berapa how many, how much
keberapa which number
mengapa, kenapa why
untuk apa why, what for

Specific questions usually have the same word order as corresponding statements. In the sentences below **apa** and **siapa** are objects. Both occur after the verb, in the normal position for an object in a statement. In English the question word must be placed first in the sentence:

Anda membaca apa?
What are you reading?
Dia menemui siapa?
Who did he meet?

However, if the question word is predicate it often precedes the subject (see also examples at the end of 4.16):

Siapa dia?
Who is he?
Bagaimana jalan itu?
What is that road like?

Siapa and apa

4.15 These are interrogative pronouns, occurring in the same positions as nouns. They can thus occur as components of a clause, as in the first two examples in section 4.14.

They can also occur within a noun phrase. Modifying a noun **apa** asks 'what':

Buku/hari/film apa ini?
What book/day/movie is this?

As a question word **apa** must be distinguished from the question marker discussed in section 4.7.

Following a noun **siapa** is possessive, meaning 'whose':

Anak siapa ini?
Whose child is this?

Siapa is an independent phrase if it does not follow a noun. In the following example it is the predicate of an interrogative clause and can be contrasted with the sentence above:

Siapa anak ini?
Who is this child?

To ask about the name of a person **siapa** is used:

Siapa nama orang itu?
What is that person's name?

For anything other than a person **apa** is used:

Apa nama kota itu?
What is the name of that town?

Apa and **siapa** can follow prepositions. In English a preposition can precede 'who' and 'what' at the beginning of a clause, although this only occurs in formal style; usually the preposition is placed at the end of the sentence. In Indonesian **siapa** and **apa** cannot be separated from a preceding preposition:

Ibu memberi buku itu kepada siapa?
Who did mother give the book to?
Anda membeli buku ini untuk siapa?
Who did you buy this book for?
Dia menulis dengan apa?
What did he write with?

The preposition plus question word can occur first for emphasis; here also they cannot be separated:

Dengan siapa dia menonton?
Who did she go to the pictures with?

4.16 **Apa** and **siapa** cannot occur as subject of a passive clause. Instead, the construction is changed to an identifying clause (see 3.92), with the question word as predicate. The question word is then followed by **yang**, which introduces the subject:

Apa yang dibicarakan di rapat?
What was discussed at the meeting?
Siapa yang kauundang?

Who did you invite? (literally: Who was the one you invited?)

Further, the subject of a passive clause cannot be a noun phrase containing **siapa** or **apa**, the same change being required here also:

Film apa yang kamu tonton?
What movie did you see?
Sepeda siapa yang dicuri?
Whose bike was stolen?

Although some Indonesians allow the interrogatives to be subject of an active verb, many people always use an identifying construction here also:[1]

Siapa yang menulis buku ini?
Who wrote this book?
Apa yang dapat menyebabkan sakit perut?
What can cause stomach ache?

Non-verbal clauses are also transformed into identifying constructions:

Siapa yang marah?
Who is angry?
Apa yang enak?
What is delicious?

The only exception to the occurrence of a nominalised subject is if it is already a noun or pronoun. The interrogative predicate freely occurs before or after the subject:

Apa ini?/Ini apa?
What is this?
Siapa orang itu?/Orang itu siapa?
Who is that person?

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1 *Tatabahasa Baku Bahasa Indonesia* (1988: 187) states that **siapa/apa** must always become predicate, the subject being a nominalised construction with **yang**. On the other hand, Johns (1978: 139) allows active clauses with the interrogative as subject, such as **Siapa membeli pakaian?** 'Who bought some clothes?'

Mana

4.17 Following a locative preposition (see 2.119) **mana** means 'which'. Like **siapa** and **apa** (see 4.15), **mana** cannot be separated from the preposition, although 'where' usually is in English:

Mereka datang dari mana?
Where do they come from?
Ke mana mereka membawa barang itu?
Where are they taking those things?

4.18 Occurring within a noun phrase **mana** usually follows **yang** and asks 'which (out of a known set)':

Tomo tinggal di rumah yang mana?
Which house does Tomo live in?

Yang before **mana** is usually omitted if the following phrase begins with **yang**, although it can be retained:

Pohon mana yang akan ditebang?
Which tree will be cut down?
Pasif yang mana yang harus dipakai dalam kalimat ini?
Which passive must be used in this sentence?

As in the above examples, a noun phrase containing (**yang**) **mana** cannot be the subject of a passive clause; instead the construction is transformed into an identifying clause (see 3.92), as also occurs if **apa** or **siapa** occurs within the noun phrase (see 4.16).

The phrase **orang mana** asks about a person's origins:

Penyanyi itu orang mana?
Where does that singer come from/What country is that singer from?

The phrase **yang mana** can be nominalised (see 3.131):

Yang mana mobilmu?
Which is your car?

Berapa

4.19 **Berapa** precedes a noun as an indefinite number meaning 'how many': **berapa jam/tahun/orang** 'how many hours/years/people'. It follows a noun to ask 'which, what' if the answer is a number, that is, if the noun refers to something

belonging to a series in which the members are distinguished by a number (see 2.15): **jam/tahun/kelas/tingkat/halaman berapa** 'what hour (time) /year/ class/ level/ page'. The difference is illustrated by the following examples:

Berapa jam mereka tunggu di sini?
How many hours (how long) did they wait here?
Jam berapa mereka singgah di sini?
What time did they call by here?

Kamu sudah membaca berapa halaman?
How many pages have you read?
Kamu membaca halaman berapa?
What page did you read?

Keberapa

4.20 **keberapa** 'which number' asks the number in a sequence of something which is not usually distinguished by its relative order. The position of such a noun in a series is identified by an ordinal number (see 2.16). **Keberapa** is thus the interrogative ordinal:

Fatimah istrinya yang keberapa?
What number wife of his is Fatimah?

Other question words

4.21 Question words of time, reason and manner usually occur first in the clause:

Kapan/bila dia akan berangkat ke Jakarta?
When will he leave for Jakarta?
Mengapa mereka belum menjawab surat saya?
Why haven't they replied to my letter yet?
Bagaimana kotak ini harus dibuka?
How should this box be opened?

*Question word plus **saja***

4.22 Combinations of a question word followed by **saja** when occurring in questions indicate an expectation on the part of the person asking the question that the answer will contain reference to more than one thing:

Andi akan berkunjung ke mana saja?
Which places will Andi visit?

When asking this the questioner assumes not only that Andi will go visiting but also that he will go to more than one place. A typical answer might thus refer to a number of places:

Dia akan berkunjung ke Aceh, Medan dan Palembang.
He will visit Aceh, Medan and Palembang.

The following examples illustrate the other common phrases in this group:

Apa saja yang dibeli ibu di pasar?
What things did mother buy at the market?
Pertunjukan apa saja yang dapat ditonton di sana?
What shows can be seen there?
Anda ingin bertemu dengan siapa saja?
Which people do you wish to meet?
Anda membaca surat kabar yang mana saja?
Which newspapers do you read?
Mahasiswa itu berasal dari mana saja?
Which places do those students come from?

Questions with *-kah*

4.23 A sentence can be overtly marked as a question by use of **-kah**. It is always optional and is largely confined to writing and formal speech. The element to which **-kah** is attached is placed first in the question. **-Kah** can occur in both yes-no and specific questions.

-kah in yes-no questions

4.24 If **apa** is present **-kah** attaches to it:

Apakah dia sakit?
Is he sick?

If **apa** does not occur **-kah** attaches to another word within the clause. This is usually the predicate centre:

Sakitkah dia?
Is he sick?
Jatuhkah dia?
Did she fall?

If the predicate centre is a phrase, for instance an adjective or locative phrase, or if the predicate phrase contains time

marker, modal or negative, **-kah** can attach to the final word of the phrase, the whole phrase then occurring at the beginning of the question:

Terlalu gemukkah anda?
Are you too fat?
Sudah pergikah ia?
Has she gone?

If a complement occurs this remains in its normal position:

Maukah kamu ikut?
Do you want to come along?
Tahukah anda mengapa mereka bekerja di sini?
Do you know why they are working here?

Instead of being attached to the predicate centre **-kah** can be attached to a time marker, negative or modal to highlight that this is what is being asked about. If marked by **-kah** this word then goes to the beginning of the clause while the rest of the predicate remains in its usual place. Some other clause components, including a number of adjuncts, can also be marked in this way:

Sudahkah hal itu kaupikirkan?
Have you already thought about that matter?
Akankah pertemuannya dengan Presiden Soeharto batal?
Will his meeting with President Soeharto be cancelled?
Seringkah dia pergi ke sana?
Does she often go there?

4.25 The sentence tag **bukan** (see 4.9) can take **-kah**; it then goes to the beginning of the sentence and carries a tone of 'Isn't it the case that ...?':

Bukankah dia berasal dari golongan menengah?
Isn't it the case that he comes from the middle class?
Bukankah saudara kaya?
Aren't you rich? (Isn't it the case that you are rich?)

If **bukankah** occurs in a noun clause it can alternatively be interpreted as a case of **-kah** being attached to the negative within the predicate and not to a tag. This is the only interpretation if the negative is other than **bukan**:

Tidakkah ini memberikan dampak yang negatif?
Doesn't this give a negative impact?

Specific questions with ***-kah***

4.26 In specific questions **-kah** attaches to the question word, which comes first in the clause:

Siapakah dia?
Who is he?
Bagaimanakah perahu nelayan itu dapat menemukan jalan?
How can the fishermen's boats find their way?
Apakah yang dia kerjakan?
What is he doing?

If the question word is part of a phrase the whole phrase occurs first, with **-kah** attached to the last word of the phrase:

Pukul berapakah pasawat berangkat?
What time does the plane depart?
Berapa buahkah kamar hotel itu?
How many rooms are there in that hotel? (literally: How many are the rooms of that hotel?)

If **siapa** 'who' and **apa** 'what' occur as object of an active verb they must come after the verb, in which case **-kah** cannot occur. However, the question word can occur first in an identifying clause (see 3.92) and take **-kah**:

Anda menemui siapa?
Who did you meet?
Siapakah yang anda temui?
Who did you meet? (literally: Who was the one you met?)

Indirect questions

4.27 A question can be placed within a statement, taking the place of a noun. Thus the question **Kapan dia akan pindah?** 'When will he move?' can occur as the complement of **tahu** 'know':

Saya tidak tahu kapan dia akan pindah.
I don't know when he will move.

As it takes the place of a noun an indirect question is a kind of nominalised clause (see 3.130). Turning a free question into an indirect question involves no change in word order in Indonesian. However, interrogative intonation does not occur and a question mark is not used in writing.

4.28 Indirect specific questions can occur as object or complement of a verb:

Saya tidak tahu mengapa rapat itu dibatalkan.
I don't know why the meeting was cancelled.
Saya lupa di mana saya menyimpan surat itu.
I forget where I put the letter.
Kami mengerti bagaimana perasaannya.
We understand his feelings. (lit: ...what his feelings are like)
Dia memberitahukan apa yang dilihatnya.
He told what he saw.

4.29 The indirect question can be the subject in a passive clause; it usually follows the verb:

Belum diketahui siapa yang akan menjadi dekan.
It isn't known yet who will become the dean.

4.30 An indirect yes-no question must be preceded by **apa(kah)**, translated 'if, whether'; as the question loses its interrogative intonation there is no other signal that it is a question. Like indirect specific questions these can occur as object or complement or as subject in a passive clause:

Kami ragu-ragu apa dia bisa lulus ujian.
We are doubtful whether he can pass the exam.
Saya tidak tahu apakah bis ini berhenti di Pasar Senen.
I don't know if this bus stops at Pasar Senen.
Masih diragukan apakah pendapat ini dapat diterima.
It is still doubtful whether this opinion can be accepted.

4.31 Yes-no questions ending with **atau** plus a negative (see 4.12) can also become indirect questions:

Dia bertanya apa mereka setuju atau tidak.
He asked if they agreed or not.
Saya tidak tahu apakah ini Pak Amran atau bukan.
I don't know if this is Mr Amran or not.

Imperatives

4.32 Constructions in Imperative mood are all addressed to someone with the intention that something is done. They range from strong commands to requests, appeals and suggestions. Basic imperatives are discussed in sections 4.33–40. In sections 4.41–56 are discussed milder constructions, including requests and invitations.

Basic imperatives are usually written with a final exclamation mark, although this convention is not always observed, especially if the order is a mild one.

Intransitive verbs in imperatives

4.33 Intransitive verbs undergo no change in imperatives:

Datang ke sini!
Come here!
Berangkat sekarang!
Leave now!
Menginap di sini!
Stay here!

Transitive verbs in imperatives

4.34 Transitive verbs drop prefix **meN-** if they refer to action performed on a specific object:

Lihat foto ini!
Look at this photo!
Tutup pintu!
Shut the door!

A transitive verb in an imperative construction does not lose its prefix if it occurs without an object, that is, if acting pseudo-intransitively (see 3.21):

Membaca sekarang!
Read now!
Menulis baik-baik!
Write properly!

Prefix **meN-** is also retained if an object occurs but does not refer to something specific:

Menabung uang untuk hari tuamu!
Save money for your old age!

Membaca buku sekarang!
Read a book now!

Such constructions refer to action in general, not to a particular action performed on a specific object. Interest is thus on the activity alone and the 'object' can be regarded as forming a kind of compound with the verb. Thus, in the last example above, **membaca buku** acts like an intransitive verb 'do book reading'.

Negative imperatives

4.35 Negative commands are formed with **jangan** 'don't':
Jangan merokok di sini!
Don't smoke here!
Jangan tidur!
Don't go to sleep!

In the presence of **jangan** prefix **meN-** on transitive verbs is regarded by most people as optional, even if there is a specific object:
Jangan (mem)baca buku itu sekarang!
Don't read that book now!

Use of **meN-** in such cases reduces the force of the command, resulting in a milder imperative.[2] Prefix **meN-** is retained with pseudo-intransitives, as is also the case in positive imperatives (see 4.34). The first example below refers to action on a specific object (which is ellipted because it has already been mentioned – see 4.111), while in the second interest is solely on the action: [3]
Pakaian ini tidak kotor. Jangan cuci!
These clothes aren't dirty. Don't wash them!

---

2 Lapoliwa (1990: 204) states that retention of **meN-** in a negative imperative with a specific object makes it a weaker command. While many Indonesians regard **meN-** as optional in negative imperatives with a specific object, e.g. Kaswanti Purwo (1986. 163), some writers, e.g. Dardjowidjojo (1978: 169), treat it as obligatorily present and some, e.g. Johns (1978: 112), treat it as obligatorily absent.

3 These examples are based on Johns (1978: 112, 114).

Jangan mencuci sekarang! (Kita harus pergi nanti.)
Don't wash now/Don't do any washing now! (We have to go soon.)

Jangan is emphasised by **sekali-kali**:
Jangan sekali-kali melanggar peraturan ini!
Never disobey this rule!

Constructions with **jangan kita** 'let's not' are mentioned in section 4.54.

Passive imperatives

4.36 An imperative with a transitive verb can be expressed in the passive, with prefix **di-**. As such a verb cannot occur in a statement with a second person agent (see 3.27) this construction contains a suggestion of being directed not at the addressee but at a third person. It is thus more indirect and consequently less forceful than an imperative with an active verb, containing a sense of 'it is to be done', rather than 'you do it', although this is not always reflected in the translations of the following examples:
Barang itu ditaruh di sini saja!
Just put those things here.
Diangkat, jangan diseret!
Lift it, don't drag it!

In a negative construction the subject can either precede **jangan** or follow the predicate:
Jendela ini jangan dibuka!
Jangan dibuka jendala ini!
This window is not to be opened!

4.37 Prohibitions are expressed as passives, for instance with **dilarang** '(it is) forbidden'. While these are structurally statements their intention is imperative:
Dilarang masuk.
No entry.
Dilarang menyalahkan api.
Lighting fires is prohibited.

Addressee in imperatives

4.38 Although the addressee is not usually mentioned in imperatives it can be. In Classical Malay it was expressed in an agent phrase, **olehmu** 'by you':

Tangkaplah olehmu Sang Tomo, hai Bima!
Seize Tomo, o Bima!

This form occurs today only in literary and archaic usage:

Pujilah olehmu Allah yang maharahim!
Praise God the most merciful!
"Bacalah olehmu sendiri ini, Jan", kataku pada Dapperste.
"Read this yourself, Jan", I said to Dapperste.[4]

With **jangan** the addressee can be expressed by a pronoun placed before the verb:

Jangan kamu (mem)baca surat ini!
Don't you read this letter!

Pronoun objects

4.39 Bound pronouns (see 2.71) cannot occur as objects of verbs in imperative constructions; instead full pronouns must occur:

Jangan mengganggu aku/dia!
Don't disturb me/him!

While **-nya** can occur as object in a statement, corresponding to unstressed 'it' in English, as in the first sentence below, it cannot occur in an imperative. Instead the object is not mentioned if it is clear from context, or, if necessary, is mentioned in full:

Saya sudah membacanya.
I've read it.
Ini suratnya. Baca!
This is his letter. Read it!

---

4 The Classical Malay example is from the *Hikayat Pandawa Lima*, quoted by Kaswanti Purwo (1984: 186). The other two examples are from Verhaar (1984: 53) and Toer (1980: 314) respectively.

Particle ***-lah*** *in imperatives*

4.40 In writing and formal speech **-lah** is optionally added to the verb in imperative constructions. This can also occur in informal styles but is much less frequent. Its occurrence here is to mark the predicate, which is out of its normal position, occurring at the beginning of the clause (see 3.51):

Bukalah pintu itu!
Open that door!
Berangkatlah sekarang!
Depart now!

It is frequently stated in teaching texts that **-lah** makes an imperative polite. Some writers even translate it as 'please'. Further, it is used so frequently in some works as to give the impression it is more or less obligatory and some even refer to it as an 'imperative particle'. However, it is probably the case that for most Indonesians **-lah** does not function as a softener and rarely occurs in imperative constructions in everyday speech. Moreover, some people even regard an imperative with **-lah** as being stronger rather than softer.[5]

Softeners in imperatives.

4.41 A number of words can be used in imperatives to make them softer or to produce polite requests. These are discussed in sections 4.42–7.

Tag ***ya***

4.42 In section 4.11 it is noted that as a sentence tag in informal statements **ya** allows the speaker to avoid the impression of making a firm assertion. In imperatives it has the same function. By drawing the listener into agreement it avoids the impression of a firm order:

Jendela ditutup, ya, sebelum tidur.
Shut the window, won't you, before you go to bed.[6]

---

5 Among many texts which assert that **-lah** makes an imperative more polite are Johns (1978: 23), Sarumpaet (1977: 145), and Dardjowidjojo (1978: 108-9). Dardjowidjojo calls it an 'imperative particle'. On the other hand, Sugono (1986: 55) states that **-lah** makes a command firmer.

6 This example is from Johns (1978: 276).

Silakan 'please'

4.43 **Silakan** (or **silahkan**), translated 'please', invites the addressee to do something for his or her own benefit. Prefix **meN-** drops with transitive verbs:

Silakan masuk.
Please come in.
Silakan ambil kue.
Please take some cake.

Tolong, coba, harap in imperatives

4.44 These three words occur with imperatives to make them polite, preceding what would otherwise be a firmer order. Prefix **meN-** drops if there is a specific object (see 4.34). A transitive verb can be passive, in which case the subject can occur before or after the verb.

Tolong

4.45 Translated 'please', **tolong** requests the addressee to do something for the speaker's benefit (cf. **menolong** 'help'). It is frequently used by one with less authority to one with more authority or seniority, or to someone of the same status who is not well known to the speaker:

Tolong ambilkan saya jas itu.
Please fetch me that jacket.
Tolong dicuci pakaian ini.
Please have these clothes washed.

Tolong is only used with transitive verbs and only then if the verb has a specific object, prefix **meN-** being deleted.

Coba

4.46 Also translatable 'please', **coba** frequently has a suggestion of urging (cf. **mencoba** 'try'). It differs from **tolong** in that it is not usually used in a request for the speaker's own benefit. Unlike **tolong**, it can occur with intransitive verbs. It is almost always used by seniors to juniors or between people of equal status:

Coba duduk baik-baik, Andi.
Please sit properly, Andi.
Coba anjingmu diikat, Mardi.
Please tie your dog up, Mardi.

Coba can occur with **kita** 'we (inclusive)', the addressee is then urged to join the speaker in the action:

Coba kita lihat siapa yang ada di sana.
Let's see who's there.

It can also be used with **saya** 'I', the addressee being urged to allow the speaker to perform the action:

Coba saya lihat PR-mu.
Let me see your homework.

Harap

4.47 This word is politer than **coba** and can be used to elders and seniors. It is somewhat softer than 'please', the expression 'would you please' usually being a more appropriate translation (cf. **berharap** 'hope'). It may, like **tolong**, seek help for the speaker but is not restricted to this:

Harap telepon Tuti di rumah.
Please telephone Tuti at home.
Harap buku saya dikembalikan.
Would you please return my book.

Like **coba**, it can be used with intransitive and pseudo-intransitive verbs, prefix **meN-** being retained:

Harap berdiri.
Would you please stand up.
Harap menulis di sini.
Please write here.

The addressee can be mentioned:

Harap bapak tunggu sebentar.
Would you please wait a moment, sir.

*Softeners occurring with **jangan***

4.48 **Tolong**, **coba** and **harap** can be placed before negative imperatives:

Tolong jangan antarkan Siti ke setasiun sekarang.
Please don't take Siti to the station now.
Coba jangan diganggu anjing itu.
Please don't annoy the dog.
Harap jangan marah.
Please don't be angry.

*Softeners occurring with **-lah***

4.49 If **-lah** (see 3.51) occurs with a softener it usually attaches to the softener, which is the first word of the clause. Alternatively, it can follow the verb:

Tolonglah buka jendela itu.
Tolong bukalah jendela itu.
Please open that window.

Requests

4.50 There are a number of ways of requesting someone to perform an action apart from adding a softener to a basic imperative. Sometimes the construction is essentially the same as in a basic imperative but this is not always so. Very polite requests are briefly discussed in section 4.53.

*Requests with **minta** and **mohon***

4.51 The verbs **(me)minta** and **(me)mohon** both occur in statements with the meaning 'request'. Simple, direct requests with them are, however, in imperative mood:

Minta air.
Can I please have some water.
Minta tolong.
Would you please help me.
Mohon undangan dibawa.
Please bring your invitation.

Unlike the softeners, **mohon** and **minta** cooccur with either **tidak** or **jangan** to form a negative request, although some people accept only **tidak** in this context (see also 3.128):

Mohon tidak merokok.
Please don't smoke.
Mohon jangan iri hati.
Please don't be jealous.

*Requests with **hendaklah** and **hendaknya***

4.52 The words **hendaklah** and **hendaknya**, meaning 'please, it is requested, you should', form polite requests, usually conveying a suggestion that the action should be performed.

Hendaknya koper-koper dikunci.
Suitcases should be locked.

Hendaklah membalas surat ini dengan segera.
Would you please reply to this letter at once.

Very polite requests

4.53 A number of words occur, either alone or in combination, to form very polite requests. They are followed by a full clause, including the second person subject. The most frequently used word is **sudi** 'be prepared to; have the pleasure to':

Sudi bapak duduk.
Would you please be seated, sir.

The word **kiranya** '(I) wonder; apparently' can form requests meaning 'kindly, please':

Saya minta kiranya anda membalas surat ini.
I request that you kindly respond to this letter.

Several combinations with **sudi** and **kiranya** are even politer, such as **sudilah kiranya**:

Sudilah kiranya saudara membawa barang itu ke sini.
Would you be so good as to bring those things here.

The formula **sudi apalah kiranya** introduces a supplication:

Sudi apalah kiranya bapak memberikan bantuan kepada pembawa surat ini.
Would you please be so kind as to give assistance to the bearer of this letter.

*Constructions with **mari** and **ayo***

4.54 **Mari** is used to urge the addressee to join the speaker in the activity, being translated 'let us'. First person inclusive pronoun **kita** optionally occurs:

Mari kita pergi ke bioskop.
Let's go to the movies.
Mari makan.
Let's eat.

Particle **-lah** can be attached to **mari**:

Marilah (kita) menyanyi.
Let us sing.

Ayo has a similar meaning but is more informal. Unlike **mari** it cannot be used to older people, only to equals and juniors. It has a sense of 'come on, let's ...':

Ayo kita makan dulu.
Come on, let's eat now.

If the verb has a specific object then **meN-** is omitted (see 4.34):

Mari kita habiskan kue ini.
Let's finish off this cake.
Ayo kita habiskan!
Come on, let's finish it off!

These words cannot cooccur with **jangan**. Thus in a construction urging the addressee to join the speaker in not doing something, they are absent. However, **kita** must occur:

Jangan kita pergi ke sana.
Let's not go there.

Mari can be used with a first person pronoun if the speaker wishes to do something for the benefit of the addressee. The verb must be transitive and have a specific object; consequently **meN-** does not occur on the verb (see 4.34):

Mari saya bawakan tas bapak.
Let me carry your bag.

Both **mari** and **ayo** can be used to invite the addressee to do something, in this function being similar to **silakan** (see 4.43), although less formal:

Mari/Ayo masuk!
Come on in!

They can also be used as a very informal way of taking leave:

Mari/Ayo.
Bye, see you.

Mari is contrasted with **biar** in section 4.56.

*Constructions with **biar***

4.55 **Biar** means 'let, allow'. In imperatives it urges the addressee to allow a course of action to occur. It can refer to

action by any person except the addressee. Particle **-lah** can be attached to **biar**:

Biar dia tidur!
Let him sleep!
Biarlah saya sendiri menemani dia!
Let me accompany him myself!
Biarlah undangan itu diantarkan sekarang!
Let the invitation be delivered now!

Mari and biar contrasted

4.56 Because **mari** urges the addressee to join with the speaker while **biar** excludes the addressee from participating, the former can cooccur with **kita** (see 4.54) while the latter can occur with any first or second person pronoun except **kita**, including **kami** 'we (exclusive)':

Mari kita pergi!
Let us (you and me) go!
Biar kami pergi!
Allow us (me and someone else) to go!

Exclamations

4.57 Utterances in exclamatory mood express the speaker's feelings or attitude, usually in an emphatic way. They are often uttered forcefully and in writing this may be indicated by an exclamation mark. Exclamations may be single words, discussed in 4.58, or sentences, discussed in section 4.59.

Interjections

4.58 Many exclamations are single words, also called interjections, which are usually uttered as an immediate reaction to some event to express surprise, anger, and so on. There are a great many interjections; glosses to the following few examples do not attempt to catch the precise force of the Indonesian:

Aduh! Oh! Oh dear!
Astaga! Good heavens! Heaven forbid!
Brengsek! Useless! (exclamation of disapproval)
Cis! Bah! Tut! (exclamation of disgust)
Kasihan! Poor thing! What a pity!

Keparat! Damn!
Lho! Gosh! What!
Masa! Ridiculous! How could that be!
Sialan! Damn! Blast!

Interjections can be used to attract someone's attention. Examples are given in section 4.110.

Interjections can be followed by a sentence in one of the other moods, which also tends to be exclamatory in tone:
Wah! Mahal sekali!
Gosh! Its really expensive!
Masyaalah! Lantas, bagaimana?
Good heavens! Then what happened?
Celaka! Dia kembali lagi!
Blast! He's coming back!

Exclamatory sentences

4.59 Exclamatory sentences are equivalent to exclamatory sentences in English with 'how' followed by an adjective, although more frequently in informal English expressions using such interjections as 'gosh' are used. English exclamations with 'what' followed by a noun phrase have no direct equivalent in Indonesian; instead an interjection followed by a statement may be used:
Wah, enak sekali masakan ini!
What a great meal!

The exclamatory sentence can consist of one of the forms **bukan main, alangkah, betapa**, or (rarely) **bukan buatan**, followed by an adjective with **-nya**:
Bukan main besarnya! How big it is!
Alangkah bagusnya! How beautiful!
Betapa luasnya! How vast it is!

Bukan main can follow the adjective:
Panasnya bukan main! Gosh, it's hot!

Bukan main can also occur alone as an interjection expressing astonishment:
Bukan main! Extraordinary!

4.60 A basic exclamation can be followed by a noun phrase indicating the person or thing having the quality referred to. The adjective corresponds to the predicate in a basic adjective clause (see 3.9) and the noun phrase corresponds to the subject of such a clause. Each of the exclamatory sentences below is preceded by the basic clause corresponding to it:

Cerita itu lucu.
That story is funny.
Betapa lucunya cerita itu!
Gosh that story is funny!

Malapetaka yang menimpa mereka besar.
The disaster which struck them was great.
Alangkah besarnya malapetaka yang menimpa mereka!
How great was the disaster which struck them!

4.61 The adjective in an exclamatory clause may correspond to an adverb in a basic clause. In this case it is followed by a subject-predicate structure. For each of the following examples a basic clause containing an adverb is first given, followed by the exclamatory sentence based on it:

Mbak Koes menerima kami dengan ramah.
Mbak Koes received us hospitably.
Bukan main ramahnya Mbak Koes menerima kami!
How hospitably Mbak Koes received us!

Mereka bekerja dengan lambat.
They are working slowly.
Alangkah lambatnya mereka bekerja!
Gosh, they're working slowly!

Mereka melawan teroris dengan gigih.
They opposed the terrorists resolutely.
Betapa gigihnya mereka melawan teroris!
How resolutely they opposed the terrorists!

4.62 Colloquially the adjective with **-nya** can occur alone, often following an interjection:

Wah, bagusnya!
Gosh, it's beautiful!
Aduh, kotornya jalan ini!
Oh, this street's dirty!

COMPLEX SENTENCES

4.63 Sentences are either simple or complex. A simple sentence consists of a single independent clause, accompanied by an intonation contour. Many of the sentences occurring in examples in Chapter Three are simple sentences. A complex sentence is one which consists of more than a single clause.

When two clauses occur in the one sentence they are sometimes linked by a conjunction. Conjunctions both link the clauses and specify the relationship between them. There are two types of conjunction. Coordinating conjunctions, sometimes called coordinators, link two independent clauses. These are discussed in sections 4.64–8. Coordinators can also link two phrases or words, as discussed in section 4.65. Subordinating conjunctions, also called subordinators, link an independent clause, called the main clause, and a clause which adds further information about the main clause. This is called a subordinate clause; it is always preceded by the conjunction. Subordinating conjunctions are discussed in sections 4.69–79.

Sometimes a sentence contains correlative structures, in which two clauses, phrases or words are dependent on each other, neither being able to occur alone; these are discussed in sections 4.81–97.

Some sentences consist of a clause preceded by a word or phrase which links it to the preceding sentence. These constructions are discussed in sections 4.98–104. Other sentences occur with a word or phrase, called a sentence adjunct, which provides a comment on what is said. These are discussed in sections 4.105–8. A sentence can also contain a word which addresses the person being spoken to. Such words, called vocatives, are discussed in sections 4.109–10.

Coordination

4.64 Coordinators, or coordinating conjunctions, link two independent clauses in a sentence. Coordinators which link two clauses include:

dan and
atau or
tetapi, tapi, akan tetapi but
lalu then
kemudian then, afterwards
serta and, as well as
dan bahkan and moreover, what's more
sedangkan while, whereas
sementara while (at the same time)
sambil, seraya while (of two actions performed by the same person)

Dia bekerja di bank sedangkan istrinya menjadi guru SMA.
He works in a bank while his wife is a high school teacher.
Minah menjaga anak-anak sementara saya pergi berbelanja.
Minah minded the children while I went shopping.

If the coordinate clauses have the same subject it is usual for it to be ellipted from the second clause (see also 4.111):

Mobilnya terus melaju kencang, lalu putar ke kiri.
His car continued to travel along fast, then turned left.
Dia bergaul dengan bebas dan bahkan membantu dengan pekerjaan kecil-kecilan.
He mixes freely and moreover helps with odd jobs.
Diambilnya mangga itu, kemudian dikupasnya hati-hati.
He took the mango then he peeled it carefully.

The coordinators **serta** and **sambil** require the two clauses to have the same subject, the second being obligatorily ellipted:

Mereka menaati nasihat orang tua serta mengikuti adat kebiasaan kita.
They obey the advice of their parents and follow our customs.
Ibu memandang kami sambil tersenyum.
Mother looked at us while smiling.

Coordination of phrases and words

4.65 As well as linking clauses coordinators can link two phrases or words. The two elements linked must be of the same kind:

laut yang bening dan tenang
a clear and calm sea
murid yang pandai tetapi malas
a clever but lazy pupil
Pak dan Bu Marto sudah lama kawin.
Mr and Mrs Marto have been married for a long time.
Mereka sudah pergi ke Jakarta atau ke Bandung.
They have gone to Jakarta or to Bandung.
Dia hanya duduk dan menangis saja.
He just sat and cried.

When two transitive verbs are coordinate they have the same subject and object. The subject, along with any components of the predicate covering both verbs, occurs before the first verb and the object after the second verb:

Majikan tidak bisa sembarangan memperkerjakan dan membayar pembantunya.
An employer cannot employ and pay his servants just as he pleases.

4.66 Some coordinators do not link all construction types. A number, such as **sedangkan** and **sementara** (see 4.64), only link clauses. Among coordinators which do not link clauses are the following.
Two adjectives can be linked by **lagi** 'as well as':

Terrier mungil lagi cerdas.
The terrier is cute as well as intelligent.

Two nouns or noun phrases can be linked by **beserta** 'and, together with':

Para karyawan beserta keluarganya bahagia dan sejahtera.
The employees together with their families are happy and prosperous.

Coordination of more than two items

4.67 More than two clauses, phrases or words can be coordinated. The coordinator usually occurs once, before the last two items. The most common coordinators are **dan** and **serta**:

Ini untuk hiasan dinding, meja serta kursi.

These are decorations for walls, tables and chairs.

Alternatively, coordinators may occur between each item. Rather than repetition of **dan**, the final two items are frequently linked by **serta**: **a dan b serta c** 'a and b and c'.

This combination of coordinators may also occur if there is coordination at two levels within the one construction. In the following example **dan** links coordinate verbs while the object consists of nouns joined by **serta**:

Mereka menjaga dan memelihara kebersihan serta keteraturan sekolah mereka.
They care for and maintain the cleanliness and orderliness of their school.

Atau 'or' can also coordinate more than two items, usually only occurring between the last two items. In the following example **atau** links noun phrases, one of which contains two nouns also linked by **atau**:

bagi suami yang kehilangan istri, bagi anak yang kehilangan ibu atau bapak, atau bagi negara yang kehilangan raykatnya
for husbands who have lost their wife, for children who have lost their mother or father, or for countries which have lost citizens

Coordination without a coordinator

4.68 Two units can be coordinated without a coordinator being present; they are simply placed one after the other. This is sometimes called parataxis. In the first example below three clauses are linked in this way (**dan** being omitted); in the second example two numbers are linked (**atau** being omitted):

Rumahku hancur, sapiku mati, sawahku tak bisa ditanami lagi.
My house was destroyed, my cattle were dead, my fields could not be planted any more.

Tiga empat ribu orang bekerja siang-malam di pabrik.
Three or four thousand people work day and night in the factory.

Subordination

4.69 A sentence can consist of a main clause and a subordinate clause. The main clause can stand alone as a sentence (that is, it is an independent clause). The subordinate clause cannot stand alone, occurring either before or after the main clause to add information to it. The subordinate clause is preceded by a subordinating conjunction, sometimes called simply a conjunction. The type of information given by the subordinate clause depends on the conjunction. Some conjunctions also function as prepositions, as discussed in section 2.127. In 4.70–9 the main types of subordinate clause are discussed. Subordinate clauses can occur without a subordinator, as discussed in section 4.80. The verb in the main clause is referred to as the main verb.

Clauses of time

4.70 These say something about when the action of the main clause occurs. Time conjunctions include:

sebelum before
sesudah, setelah after
sehabis after
sejak since
sampai until
ketika, waktu, tatkala when

The words **ketika, waktu** and **tatkala** refer to a specific event in the past:

Ketika/waktu/tatkala mereka tiba di tanah seberang, keluarga Pak Idris dan para transmigran lain harus membuka hutan.
When they arrived in the outer island Mr Idris's family and the other transmigrants had to clear the forest.

4.71 A special type of subordinate clause of time contains the construction **se-** + verb + **-nya**. It indicates that the action of the main clause occurs immediately after the action of the subordinate clause. Only a limited number of verbs can occur in this construction, all having to do with arrival, the most common being **setibanya** 'on (someone's) arrival':

Setibanya, dia langsung mandi.

On arriving he immediately took a bath.
Sepulangnya dari Jakarta, ibu jatuh sakit.
On arriving home from Jakarta mother fell ill.

The subordinate clause can contain an agent:
Sesampainya mereka di rumah sakit, mereka diperiksa dokter.
On their arrival at the hospital they were examined by the doctor.
Setibanya saya di sana, saya membuka kebun di belakang rumah.
On my arrival there I made a garden at the back of the house.

Some people allow omission of **-nya** if the subordinate clause has an agent:
Sedatang beliau, kami boleh pergi.
On his arrival we were allowed to go.

Clauses of condition

4.72 These indicate that the action of the main clause is conditional in some way on occurrence of the action of the subordinate clause. Conjunctions include:
kalau, jika, jikalau if, when
bila, apabila, bilamana when, whenever, if
asal, asalkan provided that
seandainya, andaikata, sekiranya supposing that, if

While some of these words can refer to action in the past, and thus be translated 'when', they always indicate that the action of the main clause has occurred or will occur more than once, conditional on what is mentioned in the subordinate clause:
Kalau Lebaran dia selalu pulang ke Jawa.
When it's Lebaran he always returns to Java.
Bila ada kesempatan, singgah di rumah saya.
If/whenever you have a chance, drop in at my place.

When referring to future action English 'when' always carries the assumption that the action of the subordinate clause will occur, and so contrasts with 'if'; the Indonesian words do not convey an assumption that the action will occur:

Malaysia bersedia mengurangi produksi minyak kalau/apabila negara-negara lain juga bersedia berbuat demikian.
Malaysia is prepared to lower oil production if other countries are prepared to do the same.

The conjunctions **andaikata, seandainya** and **sekiranya** often suppose something contrary to fact or something which is unlikely to occur:

Seandainya/andaikata/sekiranya musyafir itu kembali ia tetap tidak akan memperoleh air minum.
Supposing/if that traveller returned he still wouldn't be given water to drink.

Clauses of reason

4.73 Subordinate clauses of reason indicate the reason for the action of the main clause. Subordinators include:

karena, oleh karena because
sebab, oleh sebab because
lantaran because
gara-gara because
mentang-mentang just because
kalau-kalau lest

Karena/sebab/lantaran sakit, dia tidak masuk sekolah.
Because he was sick he didn't go to school.
Mentang-mentang dia orang kaya, dia berbuat seenaknya.
Just because he's a rich person he does as he likes.

The conjunction **kalau-kalau** 'lest' usually occurs with an imperative main clause:

Jangan lari, kalau-kalau jatuh.
Don't run, lest you fall.

Clauses of purpose

4. 74 These indicate the purpose of the action of the main clause. Conjunctions are:

supaya, agar, agar supaya so, so that
untuk, guna to, in order to

These also introduce complements (see 3.77–9 and 3.80–1), which occur only with particular verbs and are obligatory to the construction; subordinate clauses introduced by these conjunctions can occur with any verb in the main clause and are optional. The structure of the subordinate clauses is the same as that of complement clauses. **Supaya** and **agar** are followed by a full clause, whose subject is usually different from the subject of the main clause; they correspond to finite purpose clauses in English. If the subject is the same as that of the main clause it can be ellipted (see 4.112 for an example). **Untuk** and **guna** introduce a clause whose subject is absent, being identical to the subject of the main verb; they correspond to non-finite purpose clauses in English:

Dia mencuci rambutnya supaya bersih.
She washed her hair so that it was clean.
Kami berangkat pagi-pagi agar kami tidak terlambat.
We set off early in the morning so that we wouldn't be late.
Saya harus pergi ke kantor pos untuk membeli perangko.
I have to go to the post office to buy stamps.
Mereka bertemu di Inggris guna membahas masalah-masalah itu.
They met in England to discuss those matters.

While a complement always follows the main verb a subordinate clause introduced by **supaya** or **agar** can precede the main clause:

Agar kami tidak terlambat kami berangkat pagi-pagi.
So that we wouldn't be late we set off early in the morning.

Clauses of extent

4.75 These indicate that the action of the main clause continues to the extent that the action of the subordinate clause results. Conjunctions include:

sehingga, sampai, hingga until, to the extent that, so that

Zainab memandangi mukaku, hingga aku jadi marah.
Zainab stared at my face until/so that I became angry.
Pencuri itu dikejar, sampai/sehingga/hingga dia ditangkap.
The thief was chased until he was caught.

These conjunctions can occur in correlative constructions, with **begitu, demikian** or **sedemikian** occurring in the first clause (see 4.88).

Clauses of concession

4.76 These clauses, often called concessive clauses, indicate that the action or state expressed in the main clause occurs despite what is stated in the subordinate clause. Subordinators, all of which can be translated 'although', include:

meski, meskipun
walau, walaupun
sekalipun
kendati, kendatipun
biarpun
sungguhpun

Meskipun/walaupun dia amat cape, dia memasak untuk suaminya.
Although she was extremely tired she cooked for her husband.

Reduplicated adjectives can also carry a concessive meaning (see 1.17).

These conjunctions also introduce clauses in correlative relationship with clauses preceded by **namun**, as discussed in section 4.91.

The conjunction **padahal** 'whereas, although' introduces a clause which states something factual which contrasts with what is stated in the main clause:

Dia pura-pura tidak tahu, padahal dia tahu banyak.
He pretended not to know, whereas he knew a great deal.

Clauses of means and manner

4.77 Conjunction **dengan** 'by, by means of' indicates the means by which or the manner in which an action is perfomed:

Pencuri memasuki rumah dengan memecahkan kaca jendela.
The thief entered the house by breaking a window.

Dengan bekerja keras kamu pasti akan lulus.
By working hard you will certainly pass.

Conjunction **tanpa** 'without' indicates a means or manner by which an action is not achieved:

Dia meninggalkan isterinya tanpa memikirkan nasib anaknya.
He left his wife without thinking of the fate of his children.

Clauses of resemblance

4.78 These indicate that the action of the main clause is done in the way it would be done if what is stated in the subordinate clause were the case. Conjunctions are:

seakan-akan, seolah-olah as if

Abdullah berbicara tentang kebaikan Lord Minto seakan-akan orang Inggris itu layak disembah-sembah.
Abdullah spoke of the kindness of Lord Minto as if the Englishman was fit to be worshipped.

Dia takut kepada saya seolah-olah saya ini musuhnya.
He's afraid of me as if I were his enemy.

Clauses of contrast

4.79 These contrast what is said in the main clause with something else. Conjunctions are:

daripada rather than, instead of
alih-alih rather than, instead of
melainkan, tetapi but rather, instead

Saya akan bertransmigrasi ke Irian Jaya daripada menjadi gelandangan.
I will transmigrate to Irian Jaya rather than become a vagrant.

Alih-alih naik kereta api, ia memilih naik pesawat terbang.
Instead of taking a train he chose to go by plane.

Mereka tak menyerang tubuh seenaknya, melainkan memilih sasaran tertentu.
They don't attack the body in a random way but rather choose specific targets.

Conjunction **daripada** can introduce a clause in correlative relationship with a clause introduced by **lebih baik** or **sebaiknya**, as discussed in section 4.92.

Constructions with **melainkan/tetapi** are further discussed in sections 4.84–6.

Subordinate clauses without a subordinator

4.80 Subordinate clauses without a subordinator correspond to non-finite clauses in English. The subordinate clause has no subject, the action being performed by the same person in both clauses.
The subordinate clause can occur before the main clause. In this case the action of the main clause occurs immediately after the action of the subordinate clause. In some cases the subordinate clause also indicates the reason for the action of the main clause:

Melihat aku gugup, Zainab jadi reda.
Seeing me nervous, Zainab calmed down.
Mendengar cerita Narti, Totok berkata di dalam hati, "...
Hearing Narti's story, Totok thought to himself, "...
Berhasil melarikan diri, ia pun mengembara di Eropah.
Managing to escape, he then wandered about in Europe.

The subordinate clause can follow the main clause. In this case the events in the two clauses occur at the same time. The subordinate clause sometimes expresses the reason for the action of the main clause:

Hakim mengetukkan palu, menutup sidang.
The judge beat his gavel, closing the session.
Pak Karim mendayung, menyeberangkan Muji kembali ke desanya.
Mr Karim rowed, taking Muji back across to his village.
Ia duduk di kursi, mengayun-ayunkan kakinya.
He sat on the chair, swinging his legs.

Correlative Structures

4.81 Sometimes two clauses, phrases or words are dependent on each other, such that neither can occur alone. The two units are correlative constructions or are said to have a correlative relationship. Usually each of the units is introduced by a conjunction or adverb, as discussed in sections 4.82–97.

Baik ... maupun 'both ... and'

4.82 Emphasis can be placed on the fact that what is said applies to two words or phrases in coordination by placing **baik** before the first and **maupun** before the second. These words are a correlative pair because **baik** anticipates the addition of what follows **maupun**:

Baik Ana maupun Ira tinggal di Jakarta.
Both Ana and Ira live in Jakarta.
Baik di kota maupun di desa sepak bola digemari orang.
Soccer is enjoyed both in the town and in the village.

If the accompanying predicate is negated the construction means 'neither ... nor':

Baik kepandaian maupun kecantikan tidak berguna untuk mencapai kebahagiaan.
Neither ability nor beauty is useful for achieving happiness.

The word **baik** is sometimes omitted:

Mereka berjuang untuk bangsa maupun untuk keluarga.
They fight both for the nation and for their family.

If more than two items occur in coordination **baik** is placed before the first and **maupun** before the last:

Baik orang Cina, orang Jepang, orang India maupun orang Portugis berdagang di Jakarta.
Chinese, Japanese, and Indians, as well as Portuguese traded in Jakarta.

*Correlative structures with **bukan***

4.83 There are several correlative structures in which the first unit is preceded by **bukan** 'not'. These are discussed in sections 4.84–7.

Bukan ... melainkan/tetapi 'not ... but rather'

4.84 These constructions contain two clauses. The first, introduced by **bukan**, is stated to be incorrect, while instead the second, introduced by **melainkan** or **tetapi**, is stated to be true. **Bukan** does not occur within the first clause but rather negates the whole clause; a negative can occur within the clause predicate, as in the second example below. **Bukan** usually occurs before the subject of the clause and can optionally take **-nya**:

Bukan dia bodoh, melainkan dia malas.
It's not that he's stupid, but rather that he's lazy.
Bukannya saya tidak mau membeli rumah, tetapi uang saya tidak cukup.
It's not that I don't want to buy a house, but that I don't have enough money.

The two clauses can have the same subject, expressed before the first clause. In this case **bukan** can follow the subject:

Ia bukannya memerankan si Doel, melainkan menjadi sutradara.
He isn't playing the part of Doel, but rather is the director.

In some cases the second clause is so clearly implied by the first clause that it can be omitted:

Saya bukan tidak percaya kepadamu.
I don't disbelieve you.

If **bukan** occurs after the subject and is not followed by **-nya** or **tidak**, it can be regarded as occurring within the predicate of the clause. If it occurs with other than a noun predicate it is emphatic, anticipating the contradictory clause to follow (see 2.137):

Dia bukan bodoh, melainkan malas saja.
He's not stupid but just lazy.

If emphasis is absent **bukan** can be replaced by **tidak**; the first clause is then simply a basic clause, followed by a subordinate clause introduced by **melainkan** or **tetapi** (see also 4.79):

Kami tidak pergi ke Solo, melainkan ke Yogya.
We didn't go to Solo but to Yogya.

Correlative subordinate clauses of purpose

4.85 A sentence can state that an action is performed not for one purpose but for another. In this case correlative subordinate clauses of purpose introduced by **untuk** (see also 4.74) occur. In English 'not' usually occurs before the verb of the main clause rather than before the first subordinate clause. In Indonesian **bukan** occurs before the verb of the first subordinate clause:

Dia pergi ke Indonesia bukan untuk tinggal di hotel tetapi untuk bergaul dengan rakyat.
He didn't go to Indonesia to stay in a hotel but to mix with the people.

***Bukan hanya ... melainkan/tetapi juga** 'not only ... but also'*

4.86 The correlative structure may indicate that not only does the action of the first clause occur but so too does the action of the second clause. The first clause contains **bukan hanya** 'not only' and the second is introduced by **tetapi/melainkan juga** 'but also'. Extra emphasis can be given to **hanya**, occurring before the predicate of the first clause, by placing **saja** after the predicate:

Candi Borobudur bukan hanya sebuah monumen bersejarah saja, tetapi juga ramai didatangi orang.
The Borobudur temple is not just a historical monument but it is also visited by many people.

*Other correlative structures with **bukan***

4.87 The second clause can be introduced by several other words, including **asal(kan)** 'provided that', which sets a condition on the occurrence of the action of the first clause:

Saya bukan tidak rela kau membantu familimu, asal kau pertimbangkan juga kebutuhan kita sendiri.
I'm not unwilling for you to help your relatives, provided you also consider our own needs.

***Begitu/(se)demikian ... sehingga/sampai** 'so ... (to the extent) that'*

4.88 Subordinate clauses of extent are discussed in section 4.75. If the main clause is an adjective clause the sentence can indicate that the action or state of the

subordinate clause is a result of the extent of the quality mentioned in the main clause. The main clause contains **begitu, demikian** or **sedemikian**, which are actually modifying adverbs within the adjective phrase (see 2.100):

Dia begitu gembira, sehingga dia menangis.
He was so happy that he cried.
Harganya sedemikian mahal, sehingga tidak ada yang mau beli.
The price was so expensive that no one wanted to buy it.
Dia demikian lelah, sampai tidak dapat berjalan lagi.
She was so tired that she couldn't walk any further.

If preceded by **demikian** or **sedemikian**, the adjective can take **-nya**. Some people regard **-nya** as obligatory in this situation:

Udara sedemikian panasnya, sampai banyak orang pingsan.
The air was so hot that many people fainted.

Instead of being the predicate of an adjective clause, the adjective phrase may function as an adverb of manner in the first clause:

Dia lari begitu cepat sehingga sangat sukar untuk memotretnya.
She was running so fast that it was very difficult to photograph her.

Instead of an adjective, **rupa** can occur, the phrase **begitu/demikian rupa** meaning 'in such a way':

Haji itu membentak aku begitu rupa hingga mukanya menimbulkan rasa jijikku.
The haji snapped at me in such a way that his face aroused my disgust.

*Correlative structures with **begitu** 'no sooner ... than'*

4.89 In these constructions the first clause is introduced by **begitu** 'no sooner'. The second clause, which has no formal marker, refers to an action which immediately follows on the action of the first clause. In English the second clause begins with 'than':

Begitu timbul penyakit baru, segera juga ditemukan obatnya.
No sooner does a new illness appear than a medicine is discovered for it.
Begitu musim hujan tiba, jalan itu tertutup air.
No sooner does the wet season arrive than those roads are covered in water.

A few reduplicated intransitive verbs can function in the same way as **begitu** in this construction (see 1.24).

*Correlative structures with modifying adverbs like **makin** ... **makin** 'the more ... the more'*

4.90 Two adjective clauses (see 3.9) can occur in a correlative relationship to indicate that as the degree of the first adjective increases so too does the degree of the second. Each adjective is preceded by one of the modifying adverbs **makin, semakin, kian, tambah, bertambah** 'increasingly' (see 2.100). Both clauses can have the same subject:
Ali makin besar makin sombong.
The older Ali gets the more arrogant he becomes.
Orang itu tambah tua tambah kaya.
The older that person gets the richer he becomes.

The first clause can contain **lama** 'long (of time)'. Such constructions indicate that the degree of the adjective in the second clause increases as time goes on. The construction is similar in meaning to a single clause having the same adjective, except that the correlative construction puts emphasis on the gradual intensity in the quality over time. The first example below is preceded by a single clause containing the same adjective:
Ali makin kurus.
Ali is getting thinner.
Ali makin lama makin kurus.
(As time goes on) Ali is getting thinner and thinner.
Harga barang semakin lama semakin tinggi.
The price of goods is continually rising.

Hari 'day' can replace **lama**, in this construction also meaning 'long (of time)':
Golongan itu bertambah hari bertambah kuat.

That group is getting stronger and stronger (as time goes on).

The two clauses can have different subjects; each subject usually occurs after its predicate:

Makin tinggi pangkat orang, makin banyak persoalan yang dihadapinya.
The higher the position of a person, the more problems he faces.

Kian berat penderitaan orang, kian dekat ia pada Tuhan.
The greater a person's suffering, the closer he comes to God.

The correlative relationship may be between adverbs of manner or other adjuncts within two clauses, rather than between predicates. The adverb occurs first in each clause:

Makin sering mereka bertemu, makin sering mereka bertengkar.
The more frequently they meet the more frequently they quarrel.

Makin lama orang tinggal di kota besar, makin enggan mereka kembali ke desa.
The longer people live in a big city the more reluctant they are to return to the village.

Meskipun ... namun 'although ... nevertheless' and related structures

4.91 **Meskipun** 'although' and similar words introduce subordinate clauses of concession (see 4.76). Instead of occurring with a main clause they can occur in correlative relationship with a clause beginning with **namun** 'nevertheless'. This emphasises the contrast between what is stated in the two clauses. The clause with **meskipun** must come first:

Meskipun sawahnya banyak, namun kenikmatan hidup sedikit.
Although he has many rice fields, nevertheless the pleasures of life are few.

The other subordinators of concession listed in 4.76 can also occur, such as **biarpun**:

Biarpun sumbangannya tidak seberapa, namun dia mempunyai peranan dalam proyek raksasa ini.
Although his contribution doesn't amount to much, nevertheless he has a role in this giant project.

Instead of **namun**, the second clause can begin with **toh** 'nevertheless', or contain **juga** 'anyway' after the predicate. All three can occur together, which gives especially strong emphasis to the contrast between the two clauses:

Meski keterangan Suryaman seru, toh terasa kurang meyakinkan.
Although Suryaman's explanation was loud, it was nevertheless unconvincing.
Meskipun hujan lebat, si Amat pergi juga.
Although it was raining heavily, Amat went anyway.
Meskipun sakit, namun anak-anak ini toh sekolah juga.
Despite being sick, nevertheless these children go to school anyway.

Closely related in meaning are constructions in which the first clause does not begin with a conjunction, while the second clause ends with **juga**. These indicate that the action of the second clause occurs despite what is mentioned in the first clause. The second clause frequently begins with **tetapi** 'but':

Dia tidak diundang, tetapi dia datang juga.
He wasn't invited but he came anyway.

Lebih baik/sebaiknya ... daripada 'it's better that ... rather than'

4.92 A contrast of the type 'it's better that ... rather than' can occur between two clauses. Either clause can occur first. The clause beginning with **lebih baik/sebaiknya** frequently also contains **saja** 'just', which emphasises the contrast between the two clauses:

Daripada mati kelaparan, lebih baik kita pindah saja.
Rather than die of hunger it's better that we move.
Sebaiknya mereka menyerah saja, daripada melawan.
It's better that they just surrender rather than fight.

Bagaimanapun/betapapun [adjective]-nya ... namun/toh 'no matter how [adjective]... nevertheless'

4.93 These constructions indicate that no matter how much of a certain quality there is, nevertheless a certain action or state will occur. The quality is expressed in the first clause, which is an adjective clause; **-nya** is attached to the adjective. The second clause is introduced by **namun** or **toh** 'nevertheless':

Betapapun baiknya orang Eropah itu pada kita, toh mereka takut mengambil risiko.
No matter how kind those Europeans are to us, nevertheless they will be afraid to take risks.

Namun may be absent from the second clause:

Bagaimanapun terbukanya pemikiran Nurcholish, di kalangan kebanyakan umat pemikiran itu agak susah diterima.
No matter how open Nurcholish's thinking is, among most congregations that thinking is rather hard to accept.

Bagaimanapun can also link the following clause with the preceding sentence (see 4.100).

*Correlative structures with **baru** 'not until'*

4.94 **Baru** occurs in a sentence containing a subordinate clause of time (see 4.70) or within a clause containing an adjunct of time (see 2.182ff) to indicate that the action of the main verb does not occur until the time of the action of the subordinate clause or the time mentioned in the adjunct. **Baru** can precede either the time element or the main clause:

Baru setelah keluar dari desa ketiga tokoh kita dapat naik dokar.
Not until they were out of the village could our three characters get in the carriage.
Baru pukul sepuluh berita itu diketahui.
Not until ten o'clock was the news known.
Sore hari, sehabis bekerja, baru kita pulang.
Not until evening, after finishing work, do we go home.
Malam harinya baru aku pergi ke Hotel Homan.
Not until night time did I go to the Hotel Homan.

Entah ... entah 'whether ... or'

4.95 This construction indicates that something occurs whether it is the result of one thing or another. The structure frequently consists of two clauses, each preceded by **entah**, stating the alternative causes, and followed by a third clause stating the effect. Ellipsis of some clause elements (see 4.111) in the clauses preceded by **entah** is usual:

Entah dia bodoh entah malas, dia tidak pernah menyelesaikan pekerjaannya.
Whether he's stupid or lazy, he never finishes his work.

Entah disetujui entah tidak, dia tetap akan mengusulkan gagasannya.
Whether it's agreed to or not he will continue to propose his idea.

The clause stating the effect may occur first:

Kalau mati secara alami biasanya monyet ini tidak ditemukan, entah dikubur oleh monyet lainnya, entah kebiasaan monyet itu menyembunyikan diri sebelum mati.
If they die of natural causes these monkeys are usually not found, whether because they are buried by other monkeys or because it is their habit to hide themselves before dying.

Kalau/apabila ... maka 'if ... then'

4.96 **Kalau** and **apabila** 'if' introduce a subordinate clause of condition (see 4.72). Instead of occurring in a sentence with an independent clause this can cooccur with a clause beginning with **maka** 'then', which states a consequence:

Apabila pemerintah Sri Langka tidak mengambil langkah tegas, maka India akan protes.
If the Sri Langkan government does not take firm steps then India will protest.

Kalau teori ini benar, maka jawaban itu harus kita pertimbangkan lagi.
If this theory is correct then we must rethink the answer.

***Jangankan ... pun** 'not only ... even'*

4.97 This construction indicates that not only does the action indicated by the verb apply to the first phrase, which is surprising enough, but it even applies to the second phrase:

Jangankan orang lain, orang tuanya sendiri pun tidak dihormati.
Not only other people, but even his parents he doesn't respect.

Jangankan rumah, kamar pun belum punya.
He doesn't even have a room yet, much less a house.

Jangankan Ida Betara, saya pun risi kalau melihat jemuran di depan pura.
Let alone Ida Betara, even I would be disgusted to see laundry (hanging up) in front of the temple.

Sentence Linkers

4.98 Sentence linkers, sometimes called linking adjuncts, are similar to conjunctions. However, instead of linking one clause to another within a sentence, they link two sentences, at the same time indicating the kind of connection there is between the two sentences. In the following example **namun** 'nevertheless' is the sentence linker. It indicates that the situation in the second sentence occurs in spite of what is stated in the first sentence:

Mereka tahu dia menderita penyakit lepra. Namun, mereka tidak takut.
They know he has leprosy. Nevertheless, they are not afraid.

There are a large number of sentence linkers, describing a variety of relationships between two sentences. Some of the more common linkers are listed in sections 4.99–104. Some linkers also function as conjunctions and so are discussed in sections 4.70–9 as well.

While a linker usually comes first in the sentence this is not always the case; it can occur within the main clause of the sentence. In the following example the second sentence consists of a clause and the linking adjunct **malahan**

'moreover'. The linker follows **kadang-kadang** 'sometimes', which is a time adjunct within the clause:

Di rumah sering diadakan pesta. Kadang-kadang, malahan, mereka mendatangkan band dan penyanyi-penyanyi.
In the house parties are often held. Sometimes, moreover, they bring in a band and singers.

Linkers indicating an addition

4.99 The second sentence can contain a related comment to the first sentence or information which reinforces the first sentence. Linkers include:

lagi pula further, what's more
di samping itu besides that
juga also
selain itu besides that, apart from that
kecuali itu besides that
selanjutnya further
bahkan moreover, even
apalagi moreover, besides
malah, malahan moreover, what's more

Sejak kecil penduduk Bangunarjo mengalami hidup di lingkungan yang sehat dan teratur. Selain itu, oleh desa dikembangkan pula usaha di bidang industri rumah, seperti pertenunan.
From childhood the people of Bangunarjo have known life in a healthy and orderly environment. Besides that, efforts in the area of home industry, such as weaving, have also been developed by the village.

Anak itu memang nakal. Bahkan ibunya sendiri pernah ditipunya.
That child is certainly naughty. He has even deceived his own mother.

Ia tidak mau masuk sekolah. Lagi pula, ia tidak mau belajar di rumah.
He doesn't want to go to school. What's more, he doesn't want to study at home.

Linkers indicating contrast

4.100 The second sentence can contrast in some way with the first sentence, sometimes indicating that the action of the

second sentence occurs despite what is stated in the first sentence. Linkers include:

namun, namun demikian despite that, nevertheless
walaupun demikian, namun begitu despite that, nevertheless
meskipun demikian, meskipun begitu despite that, nevertheless
biarpun demikian, biarpun begitu despite that, nevertheless
tetapi, akan tetapi but, nevertheless, still
sebaliknya on the contrary, on the other hand
malah, malahan, bahkan instead, on the contrary
bagaimanapun (juga) however that might be

Kami tidak sependapat dengan dia. Biarpun begitu, kami tidak akan menghalanginya.
We don't agree with him. Despite that, we will not prevent him.

Penyakitnya sudah telanjur dibiarkan. Meskipun demikian, dengan berobat penderitaannya dapat dikurangi.
His disease has been left too long. Despite that, with medication his suffering can be reduced.

Keadaan memang sudah mulai aman. Akan tetapi, kita harus tetap waspada.
The situation has begun to calm down. Nevertheless, we must remain alert.

Yang dilepas itu justru yang kelas kakap. Yang kecil-kecil malah ditahan.
It was the big shots who were released. The small fry instead were detained.

Barangkali engkau berhelat dengan alasan bahwa ayah keras kepala. Bagaimanapun juga, kau telah salah melangkah.
Perhaps you are using the excuse that father is being obstinate. However that may be, you have acted wrongly.

The contrast shown in the second sentence may be strengthened in several ways, such as by use of **juga** 'also, anyway':

Dia tidak belajar. Namun, dia lulus ujian juga.
He didn't study. Nevertheless, he passed the exam anyway.

The linkers **malah**, **malahan** and **bahkan** also mean 'moreover' (see 4.99 and the example of **malahan** in 4.98). Meaning 'instead, on the contrary' they usually follow a negative sentence:

Anjingnya tidak diberi makan. Malahan dilempari.
The dog wasn't given food. On the contrary, it was pelted.
Mereka tidak bekerja. Mereka bahkan bermain kartu.
They didn't work. Instead, they played cards.

Linkers indicating a consequence

4.101 The second sentence can indicate something which is a consequence of what is stated in the first sentence. Linkers include:

akibatnya as a result, consequently
alhasil, walhasil the result is, consequently
jadi thus, therefore
maka consequently, thus, so
maka dari itu as a result of that
makanya consequently, no wonder
oleh karena itu therefore, because of that
oleh sebab itu therefore, because of that

Gino sudah besar. Maka dia punya buku tabungan sendiri.
Gino is grown up. So he has his own savings book.
Tempat itu licin. Makanya kamu jatuh.
That place is slippery. No wonder you fell.
Sopir mereka, Rudy, melihat massa mendekat sambil melempari mobil yang mereka tumpangi. Walhasil, Rudy langsung tancap gas.
Their driver, Rudy, saw a mob approaching and pelting the vehicle they were in. As a result, Rudy immediately put his foot down.

4.102 The first sentence may indicate something which is a consequence of the second sentence. Linkers include:

soalnya the thing is; this is because
habis the reason being, what else could one expect, how else could it be
maklum(lah) bear in mind; this is understandable since

Suasana di kantor itu sudah tegang. Soalnya, kantor itu terus-terusan menerima ancaman melalui telepon.
The atmosphere in the office was tense. The thing is, the office was continually receiving threats by telephone.
Ini memang bukan air minum. Habis, dipakai untuk segala macam kebutuhan.
This certainly isn't drinking water. The reason is, it is used for all sorts of purposes.
Antara 1853 dan 1858 jemaah haji yang pulang ke Hindia Belanda tidak sampai separuh dari yang berangkat. Maklum, hingga tahun 1930-an, sekitar sepuluh persen jemaah Indonesia meninggal di Tanah Suci karena sakit.
Between 1853 and 1858 less than half those who set off on the pilgrimage returned to Netherlands East Indies. Bear in mind, until the 1930s about ten percent of pilgrims died in the Holy Land from illness.

Linkers indicating an example

4.103 The second sentence presents an example of what is mentioned in the first sentence. Linkers include:
misalnya for example, for instance
umpamanya for example, for instance

Buah-buahan makanan yang sehat. Umpamanya, buah mangga dan buah semangka mengandung banyak vitamin A.
Fruit is healthy food. For example, mangos and watermelon contain a lot of vitamin A.

Linkers indicating a time sequence

4.104 A number of linking adjuncts indicate that the action of the second sentence takes place before, after, or at the same time as the action of the first sentence. Linkers include:
kemudian afterwards, later
sesudah itu after that
sebelumnya, sebelum itu beforehand, before that
sementara itu in the meantime, at the same time
lalu, lantas then

Orang tuanya berbelanja ke Glodok. Sesudah itu, mereka pergi ke Ancol.

Her parents went shopping at Glodok. After that they went to Ancol.
Tahun lalu mereka pindah ke Jakarta. Sebelumnya, mereka tinggal di Bandung.
Last year they moved to Jakarta. Before that they lived in Bandung.

Sentence Adjuncts

4.105 There are many adjuncts which are not part of a clause but are used with a clause or series of clauses to convey the speaker's comment on what is being said. These are sentence adjuncts, also called sentence adverbials or disjuncts. While most sentence adjuncts occur at the beginning of the sentence, some can follow the subject of the first clause. Sentence adjuncts include the following.

Sentence adjuncts which indicate a feeling or opinion

4.106 Some sentence adjuncts give information about the speaker's feeling or opinion about the events stated in the sentence. They include:

sayang unfortunately, what a pity
malang unfortunately
untung fortunately, luckily
mudah-mudahan, moga-moga, semoga hopefully
syukur thankfully, thank God
sebaiknya it is best, it is preferable
seharusnya, semestinya should, ought
pantas, patut it is understandable; no wonder
Insya Allah God willing

Untung, maling dapat dihalau penjaga.
Fortunately, the burglar was chased away by the guard.
Insya Allah, mereka selamat dalam perjalanan.
God willing, they will have a safe journey.
Saya seharusnya berangkat tanggal dua.
I should have left on the second.
Para veteran pantas berang.
The veterans were understandably angry.

A number of these adjuncts are given more emphasis by addition of **-lah** (see 3.51):

Syukurlah, orang tua saya begitu luas pandangannya.
Thankfully, my parents are so broad-minded.
Untunglah, kini ada kebijakan baru!
Thank goodness, there is now a new policy!

Sentence adjuncts which indicate likelihood or truthfulness

4.107 Some adjuncts express the speaker's attitude towards the likelihood of something occurring or existing or towards the truth of what is being said. These include:

rupanya, agaknya, kiranya apparently, it seems
mungkin possibly
barangkali perhaps, maybe
nampaknya, tampaknya it seems, it looks
pasti, tentu certainly
ternyata clearly, obviously
jelas it is clear, clearly
memang indeed
terus-terang frankly
sebenarnya, sebetulnya, sesungguhnya in fact, actually
tentu saja, tentunya of course, certainly
setahu saya as far as I know
pada hemat saya in my opinion
kalau saya tidak salah if I'm not mistaken

Desas-desus itu ternyata tidak benar.
That rumour is clearly not true.
Rupanya dia tidak mau bergaul dengan kita.
Apparently/It seems he doesn't want to associate with us.
Tampaknya ceritanya benar.
It seems his story is true.
Dia pasti orang luar biasa.
He is certainly an extraordinary person.
Memang dia pandai.
She is indeed clever.
Setahu saya, dia orang yang jujur.
As far as I know, he's an honest person.

Sentence adjuncts which report what is said

4.108 Several adjuncts indicate that something is said or believed by other people. These include:

konon it is said
kata orang people say, it is said

menurut mereka/dia according to them/him

Konon dahulu kala datanglah seorang musyafir ke daerah ini di musim kemarau.
It is said that long ago a traveller came to this region during the dry season.

Following **kata** the name of a particular person can replace **orang**, meaning '(someone) says; according to (someone)'. This is different from a direct quote clause (see 3.95) because what follows is indirect speech:

Kata Bu Kusno, gadis itu ialah kemenakannya.
According to Mrs Kusno, that girl was her niece.

In addition to the phrase beginning with **menurut** 'according to' there are other possibilities, followed by a noun phrase which indicates who holds such an opinion:

Di mata mayoritas umat Islam, para orientalis itu adalah musuh agama.
In the eyes of the majority of Moslems, those orientalists are the enemies of religion.

Vocatives

4.109 A vocative is a word which addresses the person being spoken to. Vocatives are usually names or kinship terms but can also be titles or markers of profession or rank. Vocatives often come at the end of the sentence and tend to make the utterance politer or more familiar. They tend to occur more frequently than in English:

Selamat pagi, pak/bu.
Good morning (addressed to a man/woman).
Jangan kuatir, dik.
Don't worry (to a younger person with whom the speaker is familiar: **dik, adik** 'younger sibling')
Sakit apa dia, dokter?
What's wrong with her, doctor?

4.110 Vocatives are also used to attract the attention of the person being addressed. They are used in this way at or near the beginning of the sentence. They can also occur alone:

Pak Hasan!

Mr Hasan!
Tessa, kamu cantik sekali.
Tessa, you are very pretty.

The vocative can be preceded by an interjection (see 4.58) to attract the addressee's attention:

Nah, teman-teman, mari mulai.
Now, friends, let's begin.
Hai Tok, kau kelihatan murung benar.
Hey Tok, you look really miserable.

While titles are retained in vocatives, diminutive **si** (see 2.35) and honorific **sang** (see 2.36) are not. Thus a younger person can be addressed as **dik Muji** '(younger brother) Muji' or as **Muji** but not as **si Muji**.

ELLIPSIS

4.111 Ellipsis refers to the omission from a sentence of a word when its presence is not necessary, often because the word has already occurred, either in the same sentence or in a preceding one. Sometimes pronouns can be omitted in Indonesian where their presence is required in English. In examples in sections 4.112–7 pronouns in translations to examples are placed in square brackets where the corresponding form in Indonesian is ellipted.

Ellipsis of subject

4.112 A subject can be omitted if it is clear from context. In the following example **Ki Demang** is spoken to in the first sentence; rather than a second person pronoun in the second sentence ellipsis occurs:

O, sombong kau, Ki Demang. Diminta air, malahan menyombongkan kekayaan.
Oh, you are arrogant, Ki Demang. [You] are asked for water, instead [you] boast about [your] wealth.

The subject need not have been mentioned previously in the discussion; it is sufficient that who is being talked about is clear from context for pronouns to be ellipted:

"Makan malam di luar?" ...

"Diundang teman lama", sahut Febrian dengan perasaan bersalah.
"Are [you] dining out?" ...
"[I]'ve been invited by an old friend", replied Febrian with a feeling of guilt.

If two clauses are in coordination and have the same subject then the subject of the second clause can be ellipted:

Mereka sudah lama kawin, tetapi belum punya anak.
They have been married a long time but [they] don't yet have any children.

Further examples, with a variety of coordinators, are given in section 4.64.

The subject of a subordinate clause can be omitted whether it precedes or follows the main clause:

Ali tidak pergi ke sekolah karena sakit.
Karena sakit Ali tidak pergi ke sekolah.
Because [he] was sick Ali didn't go to school.

If the subordinate clause occurs first it can retain the subject. In this case the noun can be replaced by a pronoun in the main clause. However, the subject cannot be omitted entirely from the main clause:

Karena Ali sakit, dia tidak pergi ke sekolah.
Because Ali was sick he didn't go to school.

Ellipsis of the subject after **supaya/agar** when acting as a complement is discussed in section 3.122. The subject can also be ellipted if **supaya** introduces a subordinate clause (see 4.74):

Dia pergi ke perpustakaan supaya (dia) dapat membaca buku.
He went to the library so that [he] could read a book.

Ellipsis of subject nouns referring to non-humans

4.113 When a noun referring to a human is understood from context it is usually represented by a pronoun, as repetition of the noun would sound awkward. In the case of a noun referring to anything other than a human there is no

corresponding pronoun in many positions in the sentence (see 2.74). In such cases ellipsis is the only alternative to stylistically awkward repetion of the noun. In the following example **nira** 'palm juice' is omitted from the second sentence:

Nira tidak bisa dibiarkan lama. Kalau tidak segera dimasak akan cepat jadi rusak.
Palm juice cannot be left long. If [it] is not boiled at once [it] will quickly spoil.

In section 3.39 is an example where, after initial mention, **kaki ayam** 'the chicken leg' is ellipted in three following clauses.

Retention of parts of the noun phrase in ellipsis

4.114 If a noun is omitted a relative clause occurring within the noun phrase can be retained. This is then nominalised, as discussed in section 3.131. A number, along with a classifier or measure noun, can also be retained. Other components of the noun phrase, such as adjectives, attributive nouns and possessives, cannot occur if the head noun is omitted. In the following example the quantifier measure noun **segelas** 'a glass (of something)' is retained in the second sentence while the head noun **susu** 'milk' is ellipted. In the third sentence the subject is a nominalised relative clause **yang lain** 'the other', **gelas (susu)** being ellipted:

Dia datang membawa susu dua gelas. Segelas diletakkannya di atas meja. Yang lain dibawanya padaku.
She came carrying two glasses of milk. She put one glass on the table. The other she brought to me.

All nominalised relative clauses result from ellipsis of the head of the noun phrase, examples being given in sections 3.131–5.

Ellipsis of words other than the subject

4.115 If an action or state has been mentioned it need not be repeated in the following clause. Instead, the following clause may contain just the subject and any words which do

not occur in the preceding clause or contrast with what has been said:

Saya sudah makan tapi mereka belum.
I've eaten but they haven't yet.
Majikannya tidak tahu ke mana dia pindah. Teman-temannya juga tidak tahu.
Her employer didn't know where she had moved to. Her friends didn't know either.

Multiple ellipsis

4.116 It is not uncommon for ellipsis both of subject and other redundant components of a clause to occur together. The following sentence repeats an example given in section 4.95, with ellipted components of the correlative subordinate clauses presented in square brackets:

Entah [gagasannya] disetujui entah [gagasannya] tidak [disetujui], dia tetap akan mengusulkan gagasannya.
Whether it is agreed to or not he will continue to propose his idea.

Ellipsis of possessives

4.117 Possessive pronouns can be ellipted. This is especially common in the case of inalienable possession, such as referring to body parts, when it is obvious who the possessor is:

Dia mengulurkan tangan kepadaku.
He held out [his] hand to me.
Mereka sedang menggosok gigi.
They are cleaning [their] teeth.

Ellipsis in responses

4.118 In conversation ellipsis frequently occurs in one person's response to what another says.

In response to a question words occurring in the question are usually not repeated:

Q:	**Siapa nama saudara?**	A:	**Jim.**
	What's your name?		Jim.
Q:	**Berapa harganya?**	A:	**Tiga ribu.**
	How much is it?		Three thousand.

Q:	**Kapan saudara berangkat?**	A:	**Besok pagi.**
	When do you leave?		Tomorrow morning.

Responses to yes-no questions, in which ellipsis is usual, are discussed in section 4.13.

Ellipsis is often used in a question when the context makes it clear what is meant; often just the question word is used:

Ada orang cari anda.	-	**Siapa?**
There's someone looking for you.	-	Who?

When agreeing with someone or commenting on what they have said ellipsis is also usual:

Saya sudah ke sana.	-	**Saya juga.**
I've been there.	-	I have too.

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Main entries are alphabetical except that plural *s* is ignored. Sub-entries are not alphabetical but generally in order of occurrence in the grammar. Affixes are listed alphabetically by their first letter, the hyphen being ignored. A free word is placed in order before a homophonous affix; thus **anda** precedes **-anda**.

The symbol > before a sub-entry cross references to the same item as a main entry for further information.

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